Teacher Today

नया शिक्षक

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"The report of the International Conference on the World Crisis in Education recommends that the best teachers should receive salaries equal to those of the best-paid professionals in the country, but it adds that 'to justify these salaries good teachers must operate at the highest level of productivity.' That is to say that the 'good teacher' should, with the appropriate techniques, do the work of 10 or 100 teachers."

Educational Planning: A World Survey of Problems and Prospects, Unesco 1970, p. 122

जुलाई-सितम्बर ७० July-Sept. 70

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

शैक्षिक आयोजना व प्रशासन

क्रम/contents

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

WHO IS IN CHARGE ?

A man watching a fisherman trying hard to land a big fish turned to a companion and asked : "Is the man fishing or is the fish manning?" We may well ask today : "Who is in charge? Are men running the machines or are the machines running men? Have we become interchangeable parts in a vast social machine? Are things getting out of hand? Who is responsible for what?"

—Edgar Dale

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Contributors are requested to send their brief bio-data and a passport size photograph while sending their first articles for consideration. *Typed scripts in duplicate are* preferred.

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- Editor

लेखकों से निवेदन है कि पहली बार रचनायें विचारार्थ भेजते समय अपना संक्षिप्त परिचय व पासपोर्ट साइज चित्र भी भेजा करें। रचनायें टाइप की हुई और दो प्रतियों में हो तो सुविधा रहेगी।

- सम्पादक

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Educational Planning

शैक्षिक आयोजना

cannot frame an education which *will remain relevant to our* circumstances say 25 years from now. There will be large changes by then and in directions *which cannot be fully* foreseen. What we can endeavour to do, however, is to incorporate in the design of our education the adaptability or the flexibility to enable our education to be fruitful for any of the trends which we can vaguely see or we can conceive but cannot clearly visualise today. In other words those who will plan and administer education during the next couple of decades will need to discipline their minds towards change, adaptation and flexibility in anticipation of, rather than following social changes.

While education is carried out in the context of a current social situation, it is also an instrument of social change. An educational planner, therefore, cannot afford to ignore the sociological problems either in the initial stages of the conceptual framework of educational planning or in the implementation of new ideas and techniques.

The development of mathematical and statistical techniques or systems analysis in developing proper budgeting, *cost-effectiveness* and programme parameters have also *important* connotations for planning of a complex educational system. In addition there are various general constraints of each individual national situation. The resources for education will be determined by [illegible] economic growth and develop- [illegible] programmes of the nation. [illegible] resources have to be matched [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] of education which is [illegible] [illegible] a particularly difficult exercise for developing nations like ours.

There is a serious difficulty in that our approach to education is *strongly conditioned* by our pedagogic practices and theories of the past. While pedagogical sciences *have certain relevance, modern* developments in many areas of science such as in brain research, psychology and *sociology* have demonstrated that our knowledge of how and in what way children and adults learn or are inhibited from learning is quite complex. It would be dangerous to hold to any dogma in this regard. Broadly two extreme views are held by theoretical pedagogists taking their cue from sociology and from anthropology respec*tively. One is controlled learning* or programmed learning and at the other extreme is autonomic learning. Controlled learning basically advocates learning in carefully made up small pockets successively one after another. Autonomic learning recommends bringing children into a stimulating environment and encouraging them to learn from their own experiences. *In actual practice* pedagogists take stands at various in-between positions. The linking *of education* to economic development adds to this already complex situation by introducing economic parameters in addition to the pedagogic ones. This is particularly so as rapid and revolutionary changes take place in technology whose relevance *to the economic situation* is intricate and far-reaching. For example, the large growth of the capital and electronics industry in Japan has not only changed the economy of the country to a signi-

ficant extent, it has given rise to some interesting elements of complex educational, social and cultural changes. The dynamic and somewhat precarious balance of economic and social forces that have been produced, has brought considerable foresight and clarity of thought into Japanese education. To be meaningful, Japan finds it necessary to have a resurgent education while trying to propagate with increasing difficulty certain values to which they attach importance.

Education is under the twin pressures of trying to maintain a certain sense of continuity with the past and to encourage change and mitigate its hardships. Educational planning is thus under constraints which seem in a certain sense to be opposed. Such conflicting constraints are common to all educational planning. While the poorest needs the best education to balance social and environmental disadvantages if we wish to accelerate changes in our society, the poorest are least able to get it or appreciate its need.

There is another type of problem in educational planning. One of the greatest resources, perhaps the greatest resource that a nation has is the talent of its future citizens. The ability to identify, develop and utilise the inborn or early developing talents of children and young people is a task which is a responsibility of the educational planner. Today in India we only try to identify talent and give them a scholarship. These boys and girls study the same courses and for the same duration as the others. We should ask ourselves: "What is the appropriate way to train these boys and girls so that their talents are best developed and utilised?" Modern scientific investigations on the brain have tended to indicate that both intrinsic talents and early environmental situations which have fostered talent can be identified sufficiently early. Their environment can be made more challenging and their learning abilities and skills enhanced through purposive training. The education we plan has to take this resource into account by clearly identifying the nature of the talent and giving them the training which will make them more valuable to society.

One of the most widespread phenomena of recent years is the expression of dissatisfaction with the current situation by students. They have expressed their feelings violently, and in many parts of the world. There has been some attempt to understand the reasons behind the unhappiness of students and youth. Many reasons have been advanced. They range widely. However, these may be grouped around at least four basic causes of a general sort for purposes of understanding. Firstly, changing values or rather the loss of values held to be important by their parents brought about by the rapid progress of modern science and technology, has created an uncomfortable spiritual vacuum. In Europe and America the question that began as a part of the scientific attitude has been carried to its logical end of questioning the values themselves. In other societies where process of change is not equally rapid, the changes in the patterns of life and the structures of the families due to industrialisation and urban growth have

negated some of the older traditional values. Since there are no ready-made new values as substitute, there is a spiritual vacuum which produces unrest and misunderstandings.

A second aspect of the current crisis is the loss of communication between generations; between teacher and student, between parent and youth. Partly, the institutionalization of education brings the youth of today into a community which has become more self-contained, vocal and critical. On the other side parents and teachers under the compulsions of modern living are unable to give either effort or time to understand what is happening to their children and students. Both these have tended to increase the isolation between the community of the middle-aged generation, our generation and youth.

A third reason, while certainly true for our country, may not be equally applicable to other nations, is the question of relevance of what students study in college and school to their life in future. The youth has neither the knowledge nor the maturity to discover the areas of relevance and make clear demands about what should happen regarding the areas of study which are irrelevant in the context of this day and age. Parents and teachers of today tend to look at the future as a continuation of the past and present and do not quite see that what was good for them may not be good for the next generation. The youth on the other hand is not conditioned by the past and tends to look at the past as irrelevant. While their attitude may not be mature there are undoubtedly areas where this irrelevance is obvious. This applies to what goes on in our educational institutions and the patterns of family training. The relevance to the future is dubious for both but unexamined. The student of today will have to live his adult life and face problems 15, 25 or 35 years from now. Many of the things we think important today will undoubtedly cease to be so 20 years from now. By the same token many of the things that do not appear to be important or worthwhile today may be the seed of situations that cannot necessarily be foreseen today. Students are not always very vocal and even when they are vocal, they are not pointed or analytical. Their expressions are vague and indisciplined because their ability to diagnose is limited. Teachers and parents tend to be smug and unconvinced in the face of such vague discontent.

The fourth area of youth and student dissatisfaction, certainly quite relevant to our own country, is the feeling of insecurity about the future which is reflected in his reaction at home and in the school. A large part of this insecurity is the economic insecurity of his own life. This insecurity is a part of the general problem of the inadequate pace of development in the country. There is another part of feeling of insecurity, the feeling of deracination which arises from the loss of his old values and inability to find new ones.

The symptoms of dissatisfaction amongst the student population are seen all over the world. To my mind, this reflects a serious gap in our understanding of the motivations of our children and youth. I have

found in our counry, in my association with young students, that the motivations that were valid for us are not valid for them. I am afraid we have not really tried to understand the sociological situation, and the various forces that play a role in determining the thinking of the youth of our country. We have often dismissed their various vague expressions of discontent as peripheral human problems brought about by social maladjustments. The human content of the situation has to be understood and we can only do so by our effort at a periodical renewal of our own youth. This requires a great deal of disciplined effort.

A deep sense of individual responsibility and social commitment to dynamic and purposive change might provide an answer to the youth of today. Such an answer will incorporate modernity of attitudes and acceptance of change with social responsibility The pressure of modernity will change our education system to suit the changing needs of a growing nation. The directions of change will fashion opportunities out of the aptitudes of the students. The educational institutions can build these aptitudes into skills and knowledge. This will require flexibility of curricula, contacts of educational institutions with live situations and development of new concepts of student and faculty discipline. The gulf between the two generations, between teachers and students, must be narrowed by encouraging faculties to develop new and interdisciplinary programmes of study aimed at developing new attitudes, new values and a new kind of commitment to the nation.

The teacher has the responsibility to bridge this gap that is appearing between him and his students as well as between his students and the society in which they live. We have to make efforts to understand the problems of our students, their attitudes, their changing values and motivations. At the same time at the purely academic level the teachers must be able to transmit clearly to the authorities concerned and to society generally the nature of the malaise in our students today. Such analyses will enable the teachers also to suggest with some authority modifications and changes in educational content, structure and form which will meet the changing needs of our youth as well as our society.

The educational system is not a frozen, invariable pattern. It is, or should be, a mobile articulated organisation responding to changing needs of our society, the increasing expanse of new knowledge, and the ideas and motives of a new generation of young people brought up under conditions very different from our own. This will necessarily mean changes in the curricula, educational aids, teaching methods etc. A teacher is a partner in this process of change and innovation. It is appropriate that teachers initiate and suggest changes in approach and content through various discussions amongst themselves in the first instance and then to the appropriate quarters. Such suggestions can / incorporate changes in the attitudes and outlook of the students which the teachers are in the best position to under-

stand being closest to them. These changes in the first instance have to be experimental and probably we cannot afford to even try to find universal or global prescriptions, It will require considerable courage, initiative and dynamic leadership on the part of the teachers to initiate such action to change curricula, teaching methods and aids suiting the requirements of the times and make the education relevant to the life of the students in future. We cannot afford to forget that the student we teach today will be in the most effective period of his life some 20 or 30 years from now. It will involve necessarily some imagination and thought on our part and this will impose an additional burden on us the teachers. However, this is a challenge of our times which we should accept willingly if we have to meet the aspirations and expectations of our students. If a teacher does not take up such a role, which essentially belongs to him, he has given up his leadership to the administration on one side and to the students on the other. The tragic consequences of such abrogation of responsibility are already on the horizon. The feeling of insecurity of the students is compounded by the insecurity, frustrations and the low pay of the teachers particularly, in the schools and to an extent in the colleges. Unless the teacher can subordinate his problems to the larger interest of his role, it will be greatly attenuated. The teacher and the student do not live in isolation. The teacher is very much a part of a community's structure for developing the skills, and the knowledge that will go to increase the productivity and wealth of the community as well as the richness of its social and cultural life. The demand from the teachers of today is therefore far greater than was expected of us when we began our life as teachers.

सार-संक्षेप

शैक्षिक-आयोजना

—बी. डी. नागचौधरी

शिक्षा की योजना बनाते समय आयोजक निम्नांकित समस्याओं को ध्यान में रखें :–

(1) सामाजिक परिवर्तन।

(2) गणितीय एवं सांख्यिकीय तकनीकें।

(3) प्रतिभावान सन्तति। पाठ्यक्रम, व्यवस्था एवं शैक्षिक परिस्थितियां प्रतिभावान छात्रों के भी अनुकूल हों।

(4) छात्र असंतोष जिन कारणों पर आधारित है वे दूर हो सकें यथा मूल्यों का अभाव, अध्यापक और छात्रों तथा माता-पिता और संतानों के मध्य सम्पर्क एवं विश्वास का अभाव, पाठ्यक्रम का भावी जीवन में अनुपयोग और भविष्य के बारे में संदिग्धता तथा असुरक्षा।

(5) छात्रों की समस्यायें, उनके दृष्टिकोण, उनके प्रेरणा के स्रोत तथा परिवर्तित मूल्य।

(6) पाठ्यक्रम भूतकाल के बौद्धिक सिद्धांतों से अभिभूत न हो अपितु वर्तमान एवं भावी तकनीकी ज्ञान तथा आर्थिक परिस्थितियों से परिपूर्ण हो।

—नि. सि. श.

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The Social, Educational, Economic and Political Aspects of Administering Educational Planning*

M. V. Mathur

Concept of planning

1. During the last decade or so, the concept of planning has not only gained wider currency but also won supporters from political and administrative organizations, which were once in doubt about its validity and usefulness. As a result of the Second World War, the political prejudices against planning (e g that it was essentially a strategy of authoritarian government and that planning could not be attempted without an ideological commitment to a monolithic political structure) were completely dispelled. When a large number of new nations which were created after the war found themselves in social and economic straits which needed immediate improvement, the "mystique of century-skipping" which was inherent in the concept of planning received their attention. No longer is the question raised whether planning is necessary. Instead, the emphasis is on how and how fast planning can be done.

Educational planning

2. It is the general interest in planned development that drew the

* Paper presented at the Seminar on Educational Planning organised by the Department of Education, Philippines, Manila on March 23, 1970.

attention of planners to education. The close relationship that the level of education bears to national development made the economist an ally of the educational planner in a joint venture characterized by the following :

(a) an attempt to bring about a balanced development of all sectors of the educational system;

(b) the correlation of the educational effort with the national policy for economic and social development;

(c) an effort to co-ordinate the quantitative expansion necessitated by demographic factors and social demand with qualitative improvement in content, structure and methods; and

(d) the determination to ensure that the investment in education brings good dividends in the form of the fulfilment of manpower needs, the overall development of the individual and the national economic, social and cultural development.

3. This venture, known as educational planning, is not without its own social, educational, economic, political, and administrative implications, for the social, economic and political changes which are to be brought about through the instrument of education ultimately constitute the raison d'etre of educational planning in any society.

Implications

The principal social implica- is that educational planning as an essential part of its process, a number of restrictions. Social demand for education is a universal phenomenon as each parent desires for his children the best possible educational opportunities and facilities. But planning seeks to rationalize this demand by correlating the parent's wishes with national manpower needs as well as the aptitudes and abilities of the individual child. This can sometimes create a difficult situation specially where people had experienced no such restrictions before; the parents consider the choice of the kind or level of education their personal responsibility. But the meagre resources available for education are scarcely able to satisfy the demands of all and everyone. As planning proceeds to distribute the resources more meaningfully with specific objectives in mind, the individual choice is likely to get somewhat curtailed.

5. Both at the stage of planning and that of implementing plans, the administrator administering the educational plan has to ask himself several questions :

(i) How can the social demand for education be accommodated within the requirements of planning ?

(ii) How far are the educational needs and aspirations of the unserved underprivileged and particularly less developed classes and communities reflected in the educational plan ?

(iii) How can the society as a whole be involved in the process of planning so that the curtailment of individual choice will be compensated by opening avenues for responsible collective decisions ?

(iv) How can the channelling of pupils according to aptitudes and abilities as well as national needs be done without interfering with the basic principles of equality of educational opportunity and without harming the slow-learner, the talented and the late-developer ?

(v) How can the society be geared to a position of participation in the implementation of educational projects so that what the State is able to supply is supplemented by voluntary effort ?

(vi) How can programmes of public education be organised to apprise the people of the significance, the process and the implications of educational planning, so that their resentment or apathy may be replaced by enthusiasm or at least informed interest ?

(vii) How can the *will to plan* as well as *development oriented attitudes* be inculcated in the people ?

(viii) What social institutions, concepts or prejudices stand in the way of building a development-consciousness and how can they be eradicated ?

(ix) What part can mass media play in this process of public education ?

Educational Implications

6. Closely related to the social aspects of administering an educational plan are its educational implications. Every society has its own values and sentiments regarding educational objectives. Deep rooted cultural traditions, historical-associations and background determine for each country its own educational values, although basically, all educational effort is in the direction of achieving such perennial objectives as (a) integration of the individual to the society, (b) the economic viability of the individual and the social unit to which he belongs, and (c) the preservation of the cultural identity of the social unity. The emphasis laid on one or the other of these objectives varies not only according to the country, but also according to the class of people who receive education and the current economic and social pressures. In this modern age of science and technology, when the hall-mark of modernisation is the degree of scientific and technical education that a country can afford, the old objectives are being challenged. In administering educational planning, a fundamental problem is to decide on educational objectives to suit the particular situation in which the country is placed at the present moment. This is not so easy as many countries have still not settled their educational objectives on national basis. Religious and cultural interests as well as political ideologies have a much bigger say than purely educational or economic needs.

7. Before educational planning is undertaken, it becomes necessary not only to decide on a set of national objectives but also the order of priorities that should be assigned to each objective. Here the educational planner can be at variance with the economist Those who see the implications of education on national development and who recognise the importance of correlating the educational effort with the development of human resources of

a country will assign to the technical, vocational and manpower aspects of education a much higher place than to cultural goals. The question is often raised by the educationists whether the emphasis should not be on the development of man as a whole, so that while he may be fitted for a skilled position in society, he is adequately equipped to appreciate the cultural and spiritual heritage of man and lead a full life of happiness and usefulness. Educationists in fact continue to draw the attention of the educational planner to the need of imparting moral and spiritual values as an integral part of education.

8. Apart from ensuring the co-operation of the educationists as regards the formulation of educational objectives, the administrator administering educational planning requires the guidance of the educational specialists in solving a series of vital questions. The planner who is a technician is more likely to see the quantitative inter-relationships and may make decisions which may be untenable educationally. Instances are not wanting when efforts made by a planner to maximise the utilisation of the school plant and facilities have been questioned by educationists on the ground that hours provided for certain subjects or the significance attached to certain subjects are not in the best interests of the teaching-learning process. Practically, all decisions that have to be made by planners have significant educational implications. For example, what should be the length of compulsory education ? At what point should compulsory education begin? What should be the time allocation for different subjects ? What is the optimum teacher-pupil ratio ? What are the most efficient means of evaluation of duties performed at different levels? What should be the qualifications and background experience of teachers? No planner would wish to make these decisions himself. Nor will he respect the subjective information of the educationist unless the validity of his views is scientifically established. Thus there are several questions to be raised and answered in this stage.

(i) Who should determine the educational objectives of a country and the order of priority that should be assigned to each objective ?

(ii) How should the educational planner and the educationist collaborate in deciding both long-range and short-range goals and targets for incorporation in the educational plan ?

(iii) How can the educationist assist in the formulation of the plan by determining the optimum ratios and quantities on such main aspects as curriculum, teacher-pupil distribution and time allocation ?

(iv) Will the educationist be ready to experiment with the existing structure of an educational system in order to make it comply with the requirements of planning ?

9. There are further educational implications in implementing an educational plan. While methods of teaching have undergone many changes and new technologies have come into use, the impact that they have made on the total educational system of a country when measured will be found to be quite limited. The planner, whose problem is

mainly in relation to maximisation of the use to which he puts the scarce resources available to education, naturally expects the cooperation of the educationist in evolving methods and techniques which should make a satisfactory impact on the budget. The planner may quite justifiably ask whether the teaching-learning process cannot be accelerated, so that what is done in seven years can be done in five years, thus making a substantial saving in the financial resources. He will also wish to see the techniques which should make fewer teachers teach more pupils. He would want that such techniques as programmed learning and such equipment as teaching machines and audio-visual aids are utilised not only for the enrichment of the teacher but also to make a difference in the educational expenditure. So, some of the questions to be looked into are :

(i) How can the inefficient and ineffective methods and techniques of instruction be replaced by methods and techniques that would reduce educational costs and enable larger groups to benefit from the available facilities ?

(ii) To what extent can the teacher be relieved of the duties and time-consuming function of conveying information by developing a methodology of teaching whereby this aspect is entrusted to educational technology ?

(iii) How can teachers, supervisors, inspectors and such other educational administrators be involved collectively in a process of ensuring the internal efficiency of the educational system while moving rapidly towards the achievement of its external efficiency ?

Economic Implications

10. The comments so far made and the questions raised have clearly shown the preoccupation that an educational planner is bound to have with the economic aspects of education. Economic implications of education are two-fold, namely, internal and external. Internally, no educational system in the world is satisfied with the quantity of resources that are allocated to it. The demand for education has risen so rapidly that even the most affluent society is unable to cope with the increase in costs of education. The planner, therefore, has to get the maximum use out of the resources made available to him. He engages himself in the calculation of the unit cost, cost-benefit analysis and econometric models both for the purpose of stretching his money to the utmost and to get more money into education. The planner is naturally impatient with the embellishments and frills. He becomes ruthless in his demands for practical and down-to-earth projects and activities. Here the planner might find himself in a serious dispute with the traditional educationist or the administrator. But as long as the internal economic factors continue to bring the pressure on the planning process, he has no alternative but to adopt this attitude.

11. Externally, the economic aspect of administering planning is most significant. The economic viability of the social unit is becoming more and more the central objective of the educational system. Economic development has not only

highlighted the necessity of developing the human resources of a nation according to its needs, but also drawn the attention to the dangers of disproportionate development of one or the other type of human resources. Unemployment of educated youth is proving to be an awesome reality in many parts of the developing world. It is no longer possible for the educationist to ignore the social and political problems that are created by this phenomenon. The educational planner is concerned with not only the utter wastage of scarce resources available to education in training unusable manpower, but also with the disservice that it does to the process of economic development as a whole in not training the kind of manpower required for development. Thus, *from the point of view of an economist*, the administrator responsible *for educational planning has* to be concerned with several significant issues such as the following :

(i) Is education given its due share of the resources for it to be a viable national activity?

(ii) Are the resources allocated to education used to the maximum advantage of the nation?

(iii) Does education turn out the kind of manpower which the country requires?

(iv) How can the sector of educated unemployment be dispelled?

12. The educationists and the economists have jointly to consider another problem, i. e., the serious situation created by the rapid expansion of knowledge and growth of technology. Education has been called to cope with the ever-increasing obsolescence of knowledge and technology. It becomes somewhat incongruous for an educational system to produce a kind of manpower which it finds unsuitable for that work within a short period like five or ten years. The thinking *among educationists as well as* economists is veering close to the idea that education should be a continuing life-long process. Therefore, the educational planner has a further question to consider : How can a process of integrated life-long education be incorporated in the educational plan, so that the growing obsolescence in knowledge and technology is not a factor detrimental to development ?

Political Implications

13. Political implications of *educational planning may be constitutional*, conventional or purely personal. *National educational* planning has to be, necessarily, a central function which calls for a substantial degree of influencing and controlling the activities and policies of decentralized bodies that may exist in a country's internal administrative set-up. In a federal country, the Central Government has to exercise a control over the policies and programmes of State Governments, even *if it is done with the* consent and co-operation of the latter. Similarly, where by law or convention, the educational administration is decentralized to local boards or authorities, planning involves the centralization of policy. Where this cannot be done due to strong political or conventional reasons, educational planning cannot be done on a national scale.

14. Another political implication of educational planning is the need to have stable policies—policies which are not drastically changed with every change of government or the chief educational administrator. It is important that fundamental educational objectives are settled on a non-partisan basis, preferably with a broad consensus amongst all political parties and interests in a country. This, alone, will enable long-term plans to be conceived with confidence and proper perspective.

15. The political leaders have also to submit to the rigorous discipline of subjugating personal, parochial, regional and local interests to the national or the wider good. This issue has two aspects. firstly, in view of this immediate objective, the politician may overemphasise local or parochial interests Secondly, planning is a technical process progressively demanding the utilization of sophisticated techniques of projection and decision-making; politicians may dislike such techniques as new fangled inessentials because of a threat they seem to present to them in reducing their span of free choice and discretion Both these attitudes are detrimental to planning; the success of planning, therefore, depends on the willingness of politicians to sacrifice both parochial or local interests and their own personal authority for the sake of planned development.

16. It is, thus, important to review the political aspects of educational planning, particularly in respect of the following :

(i) What constitutional or conventional constraints have to be removed or imposed to ensure the necessary degree of centralization of policy-making and decentralization in the formulation and implementation of the educational plan?

(ii) Does the nation feel strongly the need for centralized initiative or direction? If not, can the principles of educational planning be still adhered to at the state, regional or local level to ensure planned development ?

(iii) How can local and parochial interests be made subservient to the national good ?

(iv) Will the political parties agree to raise education above the level of party disputes and rivalry and decide on long-range educational objectives and policies to facilitate planning and plan implementation?

(v) How do the political interests react to the curtailment of their authority by accepting the technical nature of educational decision-making and by adopting techniques and methods which aim at objectivity?

Administrative Implications

17. Similar problems are confronted when one examines the administrative implications Educational planning being a new discipline, the older and more experienced administrators are often either ignorant of its full scope and implications and hence apathetic, or suspicious of its effect on their careers and, therefore, positively antagonistic. The tendency to keep planning as a distinctly separate function is caused by the fear of these administrators who are anxious to preserve their right to maintain

educational functions as best as they can. Integration of planning and control of implementation into one activity is delayed in most places not because its validity is not admitted but because the psychological barriers have not yet been overcome.

18. The traditional administrator, very much like the ordinary politician, is either jealous or suspicious of the rising importance of the technician who handles the technical aspects of educational planning. The new language, the forward-looking concepts and the modern tools and methodologies of the technicians do not, in any way, generate any confidence in the administrators. So, a professional rivalry develops based on an unnecessary, but yet inevitable, dichotomy of the administrative functions of planning and implementation.

19. Planning calls for changes in not only administrative attitudes but also in the physical and material organisation. Educational administrative machineries are, as a rule, rooted in the past and are incapable of handling the volume of work which is now being passed on to them with the speed and efficiency that planned development necessitates. Planning, therefore, demands the modernization and adaptation of the administrative machinery to a quick tempo. It also calls for a wider concept of educational administration involving not only relations with many allied disciplines but also the need to lead and motivate the entire society in fulfilling a more comprehensive set of educational objectives. The need is to have a new kind of educational [illegible], competent, energetic, far-sighted, objective and capable of synthesizing various aspects of educational administration to a unified whole. Here we may ask ourselves the following questions:

(i) What administrative barriers interfere with educational planning—e.g. psychological, personnel, material, methodological, informational, legal and public relations?

(ii) How can the dichotomy between planning and implementation be eliminated?

(iii) How can the planning technicians be involved in the administrative process of education?

(iv) In what ways has the educational administrative machinery to be overhauled to equip it to a more varied and effective programme of activities?

(v) How can the system of internal and external evaluation of plan implementation be improved to provide the necessary feed-back for research in educational planning?

(vi) How can better liaison be established between the Universities and research institutions on the one hand and the Planning Department on the other?

(vii) What kind of management development can be evolved for education to ensure a more efficient staff capable of leadership in ushering changes and innovations?

Conclusion

20. The above discussion as well as questions raised by me may throw some light on the complexity of the educational planning process when viewed from the social, economic, political and administrative points of view. While we may not have ready answers for all these questions, it is

important for us to recognise the value of a proper understanding of the task that an educational planner has to fulfil. It is only with such a comprehensive understanding that one can administer educational planning meaningfully for the overall development of the nation.

सार-संक्षेप

शैक्षिक आयोजन क्रियान्वयन के शैक्षिक, सामाजिक, आर्थिक व राजनैतिक पक्ष

—एम. वी माथुर

शैक्षिक आयोजना को लागू करने के सम्बन्ध में प्रारम्भ में जितने भी संदेह उठे थे वे अब समाप्त हो गये हैं तथा उसके सामाजिक, शैक्षिक, आर्थिक, राजनैतिक एव प्रशासनिक पक्षों की उपयोगिता असंदिग्ध हो चुकी है। योजना निर्माण तथा उसे व्यवहृत करने (अमल मे लाने) दोनों ही स्थितियों में जहां तक उनके सामाजिक संदर्भ का प्रश्न है यह विचार किया जाना अनिवार्य है कि राष्ट्रहित में सीमित उपलब्ध साधनों द्वारा जनसाधारण की अधिकतम आकांक्षाओं की पूर्ति की जा सके। शैक्षिक संदर्भ मे देश के प्राचीन सांस्कृतिक मूल्यों तथा ऐतिहासिक आधारों के साथ विशिष्ट वर्तमान परिस्थिति का सामंजस्य बिठाना आवश्यक है। इसी प्रकार आर्थिक संदर्भ में शिक्षित व्यक्ति अपने जीविकोपार्जन मे भी स्वावलम्बी बन सकें यह देखा जाना चाहिये। अपने राजनैतिक पहलू मे एक संघात्मक राज्य में शिक्षा की आयोजना राष्ट्रीय स्तर पर की जानी चाहिये। और अन्त मे शिक्षा को योजनाबद्ध रूप से आगे बढ़ाने हेतु प्रशासनिक अधिकारियों को भी भविष्य की ओर झांकने वाला तथा समय के साथ बदलने वाला होना चाहिये।

—शा० भा०

Manpower-Requirements Approach to Educational Planning

H. M. Mathur

PURSUIT of the educational and cultural goals has traditionally been the predominant interest of the educators. But in the context of pressing needs for accelerated development throughout the world, preparing individuals for the world of work is everywhere considered now to be an essential function of the educational system. Also, education these days is increasingly looked on as a vital factor in the process of economic development.

Education and training serve growing needs in this sphere of both the individual and the society. To be able to pursue any productive, remunerative, satisfying vocation an individual must possess certain skills and abilities. The process that promotes acquisition of professional competence and equips an individual for the job world is educational. A society must have its production establishments manned by a work force well trained for diverse jobs. Here again, education makes a vitally important contribution.

The process of economic development leading to more complex production arrangements calls for a higher level of technical and specialised knowledge than is to be usually found in the work force. While

setting targets for economic growth, the planners must therefore define requirements for education and training. The manpower-requirements approach to educational planning makes precisely this point. Simply put, it means that a certain manpower structure is an essential condition of success for planned economic development and that production of manpower of the right kind and in the appropriate quantity is possible by effecting certain changes in the educational institutions.

Scientific advances and technological changes occurring fantastically rapidly are leading to changes in both the occupation mosaic and the skill requirements of most occupations. Manpower requirements of the future will therefore be very much different from those of today.

Not only in developing but also in the developed countries, the need to develop articulation between the manpower needs of the economy and the educational system is now increasingly felt. Side by side existence of critical shortages of the technicians and surpluses of graduates in arts and humanistic studies in developing countries calls for urgent remedial action.

Many countries see in the manpower-requirement projections a basis reasonably sure and sufficient for formulating their future plans of educational development. In U.S.S.R. this approach has guided educational planning since the days of the First Five Year Plan of 1928-32. A number of countries in Europe, with the notable exception of England, have made extensive use of manpower studies. Planning strategies that the developing countries have adopted also attach great importance to manpower studies.

It has not been possible yet to evolve universally applicable methodologies for forecasting of manpower needs and drawing education plans on the basis of such projections. Manpower experts and educational planners the world over use widely differing techniques. A brief review of diverse methodologies in use would be in order here.

In U. S. S. R., the method of "saturation rates" based on the ratio of skilled workers to total labour, was initially used. Later on, the method of 'work norms' based on quantity and kind of work done by each skilled worker also came into use. In countries with centrally-planned economies where economic targets are neatly defined, both these methods are being extensively used.

In countries with a liberal economy, methodologies employed are not very elaborate. Initially, simple surveys among employees used to be conducted to yield requisite data. In recent years cases of imbalance between training and employment have increasingly been surveyed to enable assessment being made of actual manpower needs.

The method most widely in use in countries with mixed economies is based on the projection of past trends corrected by an estimate of changes likely to result from technological, social and economic development. The actual forecast is adjusted to the targets of the general development planning. What is thus attempted is not merely a forecast but also continuation of trends in directions considered desirable.

Quite obviously, manpower-educational planning presupposes existence of a central economic planning unit. Availability of reliable statistical data too is a precondition of success in this endeavour.

Despite variations in methods and techniques employed to determine manpower needs in different countries, there are many similarities in the approach that give it a character distinctively its own. Basically, the steps involved in the exercise are the same everywhere.

The economic plan of the country lays down certain targets for achievement 15 or 20 years hence. Once this is done, the task of the manpower-educational planning consists of certain steps to be taken successively in this order. First, sectoral targets of the economy such as agriculture, power development, transportation, industry are defined. Second, number of workers required to produce the target figure for each sector is worked out by labour-output co-efficient calculations. Third, the labour force required is broken up into various occupational categories. Fourth, the figure for the total number of workers required is distributed between various occupational categories. Fifth, an estimate is made of minimum level of education and training needed for various occupational tasks. Sixth and the logical last step is drawing up a list of numbers of workers specified by educational attainments that must be produced for achieving the goals of development planning.

When manpower studies came increasingly into vogue, many began to hope that the difficulties of educational planning would all disappear soon. But even the greatest enthusiasts of this approach are now not so confident. In fact, they are the most emphatic in warning against its limitations and pitfalls.

Limitations implicit in this technique and deficiencies that the practical experience has brought to light may be noted here in brief.

A major limitation of this approach is too narrow a preoccupation with the problems of economic growth, and on this basis alone it does not seem possible to found a comprehensive educational plan. The social, cultural and human objectives of development just cannot be subordinated to the purely economic goals. Then, this approach is concerned exclusively with the training of workers. It makes no provision for the education of the entrepreneur, training of the consumer and the citizen whose attitudes and motivations in the ultimate analysis can affect the course of economic growth significantly. Again, this approach makes no provision for training of those who are self-employed in agriculture and such traditional occupations. Also, there is incongruity in objectives of manpower planning and the educational planning. While manpower planning has goals which more or less are of a transitional nature, educational goals are long-term. This restricts applicability of the manpower approach to certain forms of education only.

The forecasts of manpower requirements often take no note of the possibilities of technological developments which in turn may affect the working force. As automation progresses a few trained workers in future will be able to do

the job that presently is done by a large number of people. Forecasts usually cover a whole country. Global forecasts too are not uncommon. Underlying these forecasts usually are certain assumptions of mobility, but as experience has shown some professionals are reluctant to move over to other places. There might be demand for doctors, engineers and other highly trained professionals in rural areas, but the prospect of living and working in conditions different from urban centres discourages many of them from accepting these jobs. On the other hand, forecasts sometimes do not envisage migration of a kind that the much-talked-of "brain drain" represents today.

Often forecasting is limited to the modern sector of production, and because educational institutions take a long time in producing "high level manpower" provision usually is made for training requirements of only certain highly specialised occupations. Thus the forecasts are of limited use in educational planning. An important defect of this approach has to do with the quantitative nature of the forecasts. All too often, content of training programmes for various occupations is not clearly spelt out.

Should one, then, conclude that all manpower projections are so imprecise or, at any rate, subject to such uncertainty, that the approach must be rejected completely? It is interesting to note that not even those who are most sceptical of the manpower - requirements approach suggest anything of the kind.

On the contrary, what the experience of manpower-educational planning over the past ten years would seem to clearly indicate is that under certain conditions it is entirely feasible to make good use of manpower-forecasting techniques.

The job of projecting manpower requirements is made difficult by the fact that in many developing countries the available statistical data are deficient in many ways. Basic data at least must be available to the manpower expert on items such as: population census by each individual occupational category and by educational attainments; wage structure by age and also qualifications; surpluses and shortages in different professions; job preferences; extent of unemployment among the educated. Collection and processing of statistical data requires time, money and what is more important, well-trained statisticians. Yet it is essential that the basic data needed for manpower planning are built up systematically.

There is need for more knowledge of descriptive content of various occupations. It is necessary that programmes of training for workers in different occupations are developed on the basis of such job analysis.

The scope of manpower surveys should be enlarged to cover traditional sector of the economy. Usually the studies are restricted to requirements of the modern sector. The population in developing countries is still overwhelmingly rural and exclusion of the traditional sector will only reduce the usefulness of the manpower surveys for purposes of planning.

To be useful as a guide to action, the forecasting of manpower require-

ments must make allowance for likely economic and technological changes, *for possibilities of* change in occupational preferences, mobility of workers, and such matters.

A permanent machinery to ensure well-coordinated working between demographers, statisticians, economists, educators, administrators and others must exist, if forecasting is to be done accurately and corrected from time to time in the light of new facts and knowledge.

Forecasting need not be restricted to long-term requirements only. Needs of the medium-term and even short-term are also important in the planning perspective.

Unless forecasting is backed up by a series of concrete measures such as vocational guidance, a rational wages policy etc., chances of the manpower plan succeeding are slim indeed. Graduates usually have preconceived notions regarding certain jobs. If the available jobs with better prospects of pay are not the ones traditionally considered respectable they may even refuse to accept them. Vocational guidance can do much to correct attitudes concerning employment. Where certain types of jobs are in strong preference over others, changes in the wages policy can lead to utilization of human resources in desired directions.

In the present stage of their development, the manpower-forecasting techniques are admittedly far from perfect. Though this reduces their usefulness, the manpower considerations do not cease to be relevant to educational decision-making. Even a rapid manpower survey can fairly precisely indicate the requirement of trained personnel *in important sectors* of the economy and the needs in education and training for this working force. By showing how requirements are generally distributed, it is possible for the survey to provide against unemployment among the educated to some extent.

As an integral part of over-all development plan, relatively more emphasis in educational policy may necessarily have to be given to economic considerations but it should by no means exclude other considerations in the final reckoning. Educational planning should not be understood to mean simple translation of future manpower requirement projections into required educational outputs. Estimates of social demand for education, of cultural and educational requirements, of financial possibilities must all be given due weight in decisions with regard to planning of comprehensive educational development. The forecasting of manpower requirements is undoubtedly an essential element in the process of educational planning, but it must not be supposed that considerations other than manpower are any less relevant to it.

सार-संक्षेप

जनशक्ति आवश्यकतानुरूप शैक्षिक आयोजन की पद्धति

— एच. एम. माथुर

नियोजित आर्थिक विकास की सफलता के लिये वांछित कुशलताओं एवं योग्यताओं वाले व्यक्तियों की वांछित मात्रा आवश्यक है। विज्ञान व तकनीकी ज्ञान की प्रगति के कारण जनशक्ति की आवश्यकताओं में भी

तीव्रता से परिवर्तन होते हैं। शैक्षिक आयोजना इन जनशक्ति आवश्यकताओं के अनुरूप हो तो आर्थिक विकास में भारी मदद मिल सकती है पर यह बहुत कठिन है। इंगलैंड के अलावा कई देशों में इस हेतु प्रयत्न हो रहे हैं और कई तरीकों पर प्रयोग हो रहे हैं। 'चरम-तृप्ति-स्तर-मूल्य (सेचरेशन रेट्स) और 'कार्य-मान' (वर्क नार्म्ज) नामक तरीके विशेष उल्लेखनीय हैं।

तरीकों की भिन्नता के बावजूद सभी देशों में इस पद्धति के कुछ सोपान लगभग एक से हैं यथा १–क्षेत्रीय लक्ष्य निर्धारण, २–श्रमिक संख्या निर्धारण, ३–श्रमिकों का धंधावार वर्गीकरण, ४–कुल श्रमिक संख्या का धंधावार विभाजन ५–धंधानुसार न्यूनतम शिक्षण-प्रशिक्षण आवश्यकताओं का निर्धारण, ६–शैक्षणिक योग्यताओं सहित श्रमिक संख्या सूची निर्माण।

इस पद्धति की भी सीमायें हैं। जनशक्ति आयोजना के लक्ष्य अल्पकालीन होते हैं, शिक्षा के लक्ष्य दीर्घकालीन हैं। श्रमिकों के अतिरिक्त और भी लोग हैं जिनका उद्यम एवं अभिप्रेरण आर्थिक विकास में सहायक होता है। संख्या पर बल होने से गुण का ह्रास भी एक बड़ा खतरा है।

सभी संबंधित विशेषज्ञों के सहयोग से कार्य करने वाली स्थायी व्यवस्था होना आवश्यक है। ग्राम्य क्षेत्रों व पारंपरिक धंधों का ध्यान भी रखना है। और यह भी याद रखना है कि आर्थिक विकास के साथ स्वयं शिक्षा व संस्कृति के विकास की भी समाज मांग करता है। — भै. दा. था.

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Concept of Planning

1. During the last decade or so, the concept of planning has not only gained wide currency but also won supporters from political and administrative organizations which were once in doubt about its validity and usefulness. As a result of the Second World War, the political prejudices against planning (e.g. that it was essentially a strategy of authoritarian government and that planning could *not* be attempted without an ideological commitment to [a monolithic political structure]) were completely dispelled. When a large number of new nations which were created after the war found themselves in social and economic straits which needed immediate improvement, the "mystique of century-skipping" which was inherent in the concept of planning received their attention. No longer is the question raised whether planning is necessary. Instead, the emphasis is on how and how fast planning can be done.

2. It is the general interest in planned development that drew the attention of planners to education. Between 1960 and 1970 the concept spread very quickly[1] and today the literature on the subject comprises hundreds of volumes. Almost all the International Organizations are involved in educational planning, like UNESCO, World Bank, ILO, OECD, etc. Ever increasing numbers of seminars, conferences and workshops on educational planning are taking place everywhere. Out of the 91 countries surveyed by Unesco[2] 73 have elaborated at least one educational plan and almost all the countries of the world have an Educational Planning Unit. Very seldom has an idea spread so quickly and so vigorously as the idea of educational planning.

Need for Training

3. The growth of educational planning activity, as well as the unmistakable trend in its development towards decentralization, have created the need for giving the personnel who are and who will be engaged in this work a certain measure of familiarity, if not the mastery, of its theoretical foundations and practical aspects.

Perspective on Educational Planning

4. In formulating educational plans and courses in educational planning, it is important that educational planning be viewed in its proper perspective. In this context it is worthwhile to bear in mind the following principles enunciated by the International Conference on Educational Planning[3] held in Paris from 6-14 August, 1968 :

(a) educational planning should be looked upon as an integral part of the planning of general development;

(b) educational planning is pre-eminently long-term, necessitating forward-looking studies, prior to the drawing up by national decisions of medium and short-term plan, programmes and projects;

(c) educational planning must be comprehensive and education should be identified with the concept of life-long education, inasmuch as it applies to education at every level and of every type and at all stages of life;

(d) the funds needed for the implementation of programmes of education and training must be regarded as an essential pre-investment for the general development of a country;

(e) the planning of education should take into account the structures, methods and content of education as well as its quantitative aspects,

(f) the preparation of educational and training programmes should be based more particularly upon the following criteria :

(i) the democratization of education and the training of the individual in preparation for his maximum development and full participation in the life of society in particular, through moral and spiritual development and through action for international co-operation and understanding;

(ii) the co-ordination of educational development plans especially at the higher levels, with the requirements for qualified manpower, by utilizing for this purpose a continuous system of forecasting and guidance;

(iii) a policy of educational development permitting of continuous and balanced expansion;

(iv) application of economic analysis (including cost studies) and of education evaluation techniques to ensure the more efficient use of resources devoted to education, whether in terms of investment in plant, equipment and research, training of teachers or organization of the teaching/learning process;

(v) special attention to reducing the drop-out rates, especially among the culturally deprived sections of the population;

(vi) flexibility of the plan and continuity of the planning process in readiness for any adaptations which may be needed to meet unforeseen requirements;

(vii) territorial distribution of education facilities in harmony with the territorial distribution of the population and of economic units,

(viii) the differentiation and special requirements of planning at local, regional and national or federal level, with a view to increased international action.

The Clientele

5. In the light of the general principles enunciated above, it is pertinent to enquire as to who are the people who need training in educational planning. This question was discussed at length in the Seminar of Experts on University Teaching for Educational Planning, which the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration organised at New Delhi from 5-12 August 1969[4] The Seminar considered the types of personnel involved or are likely to be involved in educational planning work in the Asian region and came to the conclusion that courses in educational planning will have to be designed to meet the needs of (i) personnel actually engaged in educational planning and administration at various levels, (ii) teachers under training, (iii) teacher-educators, (iv) post-graduate students in subjects like economics and sociology, and (v) doctoral students in contributory disciplines.

Professional Training in Specialised Institutes

6. Specialised professional training in educational planning is generally provided to actual and potential educational planners and administrators in specialised international and regional institutes sponsored by Unesco.

7. The International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris, aims at broadening and deepening the knowledge of persons who already possess substantial acquaintance and experience with educational

planning. The Intern Programme of the Institute, of 10 months' duration, is aimed at preparing well-qualified younger people (usually 25-30 years of age) for career in educational planning either as teachers, as international experts or as practitioners in individual countries. This Institute also provides a small programme for Summer Interns—outstanding university graduate students interested in possible careers in educational planning are qualified to do useful work for the Institute. The Visiting Fellows Programme of this Institute enables well-qualified, experienced people to spend from 1-6 months at the Institute, pursuing a specially designed programme of individual studies related to their work, or doing an avdanced piece of research or writing.

8. The Unesco's four Regional Training Centres, namely the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, Regional Centre for Advanced Training of Educational Personnel in the Arab States, Beirut, Regional Group for Educational Planning and Administration in Africa, Dakar and the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning, Santiago provide introductory and middle level training in educational planning as a midcareer course. The duration of such courses varies from 3-9 months; their admission requirement usually being graduation with some professional experience.

9. Elements of educational planning are also included in the more comprehensive courses on planning offered by some other specialised institutes. For example, in the two courses (6-month and 3-month) offered by the United Nations Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Bangkok, for senior middle level officials and for senior personnel respectively, educational planning is a section in the longer course and a component in one of the options in the shorter one. Similarly, in the mid-career nine-month course offered by the United Nations African Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Dakar, techniques of educational planning is one of the optional specialisations.

Levels and Types of Courses

10. The New Delhi Seminar also discussed at length the type of courses in educational planning which can be offered in universities. While the need for giving a sort of 'functional literacy' in planning for the entire body of educational workers was fully recognised, the consensus was that courses in educational planning lend themselves for study better at the post-graduate level.

11. In the Faculty of Education and in post-graduate Teacher Training Institutions, the Seminar identified the need for different types of courses. It was recognised that the teachers under training should have familiarity with basic concepts and techniques in educational planning. It was accordingly suggested that elements of educational planning should be included in the B Ed./Dip. Education syllabus, by suitable adjustments in the existing syllabuses. In countries where master's level courses in education are not available, or are available only in a

very limited way, such elements of educational planning as included in the B.Ed. syllabus may not be enough to equip persons in the educational fields engaged in planning and administration. To meet this need, provision of an additional optional paper, which would give the students better opportunity for the study of educational planning, was suggested. At the M.Ed. level, taking into account the duration of such courses and also the curricular pattern in the region, the Seminar felt that there was ample scope for a course in Educational Planning either as an optional paper or as a compulsory paper.

12. The Seminar recognised that in regard to educational planning there was a felt need for short-term specific courses like (i) an appreciation course for top level educational administrators concerned with policy decisions, (ii) a course in evaluation of education planning, (iii) a course in the qualitative aspects of educational planning and (iv) a course in statistics for educational planning. In this connection the institution of a short introductory course in educational planning for giving basic orientation to personnel engaged in the planning and administration of education in the various Ministries of the Government was suggested.

13. The specific courses in Educational Planning suggested by the [illegible] are :

A compulsory course in Ele- of Educational Planning at [illegible] level by suitable adjust- the existing syllabus.

An additional optional [illegible] in Educational Planning at [illegible]Ed. level which is specially recommended for areas where courses beyond B. Ed. level are not available.

(iii) A one-year compulsory/optional course in Educational Planning at M. Ed. level.

(iv) A 10-12 weeks introductory course in Educational Planning for personnel engaged in planning and administration of education in the various Ministries.

14. The Seminar also discussed the desirability and feasibility of introducing courses in educational planning in other faculties. Economics, being strategically important from the point of supply of potential planners, was considered an area important enough to provide for the study of educational planning. The Seminar accordingly suggested two courses in Economics of Education, one an introductory one and the other an advanced one.

15. In regard to M.A. Sociology and Anthropology, Political Science, Public Administration and Management, the Seminar felt that there was ample scope for inclusion of suitable aspects of educational planning which impinge on these disciplines. It indicated the desirability of introducing the following courses :–

M.A. (Sociology and Anthropology)—one course in Sociology of Educational Planning, or certain aspects of educational planning to be incorporated in other courses in Sociology and Anthropology.

M.A. (Political Science, Public Administration and Management)-One course in Educational Planning in Political Science, Public Administration and Management.

16. The Seminar also identified the emergent need of introducing a short-term programme in educational planning for personnel engaged in developmental work in different Ministries of the Government. This is primarily intended to make them familiar with the basic concepts, techniques and implications of educational planning. The occasion for such a course arises because of the felt lack of knowledge on the part of such personnel regarding the fundamental concepts and implications of educational planning.

17. The objectives of the various courses listed above as well as the suggested contents thereof are given in pages 14-24 of the Report of the Seminar (Part I). The interested reader may like to obtain a copy of the Report from the Asian Institute.

Organisational Set-up

18. The administrative and organisational set-up of such courses will no doubt depend on the faculty or faculties which conduct the courses, the content of the course and the extent to which it includes areas from different disciplines, the type of course offered, the level at which it is offered and also the very approach to the course which can be inter-disciplinary or otherwise.

19. From the point of view of the need for a sustained and balanced development of the course and the need for fostering the inter-disciplinary approach and treatment, a satisfactory set-up will perhaps be to organise Departments of Educational Planning in the universities consisting of personnel with sufficient background in the contributory disciplines as well as in educational planning. This arrangement, it was thought, would best contribute towards the development of interest, involvement and scholarship necessary for giving form and shape to this new discipline. This, however, may be possible only in a few universities which may develop centers of advanced studies for promoting inter-disciplinary research and investigation at the M.Ed. level and beyond. The alternative plan could be to seek co-operation of experts from other disciplines in the university.

20. The need for close liaison between universities which conduct these courses and agencies which are actually engaged in the formulation and implementation of plans cannot be over-emphasised. To make this relationship meaningful and rewarding it is suggested that, whenever possible, personnel from planning agencies should be actually associated with these courses. This will be a definite advantage to the universities as well as to the planning agencies.

Research in Educational Planning

21. The universities can be of direct assistance to the development efforts of the society through teaching programmes and research in educational planning. Research must occupy a pre-eminent place in university courses in educational planning. This is particularly necessary so as to collect the empirical data on which the basic premises of this new discipline should be founded as also to find satisfactory solutions to problems in educational planning. In undertaking research,

projects which are inter-disciplinary in nature and which involve participation on the part of different agencies involved in planning as also a wide range of personnel, should get precedence. The area which lies in between education and contributory disciplines to educational planning is specially suited for this type of research. Such cooperative research directed at extending the frontiers of knowledge of the discipline, re-interpreting the past and present, discussing new ways of tackling problems and evaluating programmes and projects in planning, can become the vital link between the universities and developmental efforts of the society. The collaboration between planning agencies and universities will also become more meaningful and fruitful in the context of the feed-back which research can provide.

Indian Scene

22. It is a matter of gratification that the facilities for training in educational planning offered by the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi have generally been fully utilized by most of the Member-States of the Asian region, particularly so by India. During the ten courses that the Institute has so far organised, India has been represented by two to five candidates in each course, the total number of candidates so far trained being 29. It is pleasing to observe that most of our alumni are occupying important positions as Deputy Directors of Education, Inspectors of [illegible] [illegible]cers, administ[illegible] [illegible] teacher-educators, superintendents and planners. They are making good use of the training received by them at the Asian Institute and subsequently by their experience in the field.

23. However, recognising the value of such training and keeping in view the much larger needs of our county than the Asian Institute in its present form can cope with, the Education Commission recommended that a National Staff College for Educational Administrators be established for the purpose. This important recommendation of the Education Commission has been accepted in principle and the Government of India have decided to set up a National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators by 1972. In the meantime, with a view to preparing the necessary ground for the Staff College, the Indian Programme has already been introduced within the Asian Institute since 1969, as a precursor to the National Staff College.

24. Among the activities initiated under the Indian Programme of the Asian Institute, one is the organisation of a series of State Seminars on Educational Planning and Administration in collaboration with the State Governments. These Study seminars are intended for all District Education Officers and other senior officials of the Education Directorate and the Secretariat. Six such Seminars have already been organised in the year 1969-70, namely for the States of Orissa, Mysore, Gujarat, West Bengal, Bihar and Rajasthan. The Seminars in other States will be organised in 1970-71. Among the items included in the agenda of the seminars are the State's Fourth Five

Year Plan of Education, District Planning and Institutional Planning. Thus, an attempt is being made to create an active awareness among the education officers and, through them, amongst institutions and teachers, regarding educational planning at various stages.

25. The concept of educational planning, as envisaged above, is quite wide and comprehensive. It covers the whole gamut of educational activity from class-room teaching to the top level policy decision-making. The teacher, the supervisor, the inspector, the superintendent, the teacher-educator, the administrator—each one of them can plan the educational activity at his own level in whatever position he may be placed. The preparation and implementation of institutional plans will necessarily have to be done by teachers and headmasters, under the guidance and advice of supervisors and Education Officers, who, in their turn, have to integrate the institutional plans and formulate the plans at the district, area or regional level. These plans will then have to be integrated by the Planning Commission at the national level. The basic policy decisions and guidelines will, of course, have to be laid down by the central planning authority. It is only when planning is done, in this manner, from grass-roots upwards that it can be realistic and meaningful. And, in this democratic process, people placed at various levels have their own functions. It is this totality of the educational planning in all its aspects which emphasises the need for training and provides ample opportunity for the utilization of that training in educational planning at various levels.

सार-संक्षेप

शैक्षिक आयोजनों का प्रशिक्षण

— एस. एन. महरोत्रा

शैक्षिक आयोजना की विचारधारा सर्वमान्य है। अगस्त सन् १९६८ में पेरिस मे हुए अन्तरराष्ट्रीय सम्मेलन ने इसकी अनिवार्यता एवं इसके मौलिक सिद्धान्तों पर पूर्ण प्रकाश डाला है। अब हर राष्ट्र द्वारा शैक्षिक आयोजकों के प्रशिक्षण की रूपरेखा तैयार की जारही है।

आयोजक प्रशिक्षणार्थियों की न्यूनतम योग्यता — स्नातक शिक्षक प्रशिक्षक, शिक्षा योजना के कार्यकर्ता, अध्यापक प्रशिक्षणार्थी आदि। वर्तमान मे निम्नांकित विशिष्ट संस्थाओं में शैक्षिक आयोजना का व्यावसायिक प्रशिक्षण हो रहा है :— (१) शैक्षिक आयोजना, अंतर्राष्ट्रीय संस्था पेरिस—१० माह का पाठ्यक्रम, (२) यूनेस्को के ४ रीजनल प्रशिक्षण केन्द्र, नई दिल्ली, बेरुत, डकार (अफ्रीका) एवं सेन्टियागो (अमेरिका) मे स्थित। ३ से ९ माह का पाठ्यक्रम। प्रवेश *योग्यता-स्नातक।*

पाठ्यक्रमों का स्तर एवं प्रकार — एम. एड स्तर पर शैक्षिक आयोजना का अनिवार्य या ऐच्छिक विषय—अवधि १ वर्ष। अर्थशास्त्र, समाजशास्त्र, राजनीति विज्ञान और जन प्रशासन आदि विषयो मे एम. ए. स्तर पर शैक्षिक आयोजना का पाठ्यक्रम रखा जावे। १०-१२ हफ्ते का एक संक्षिप्त पाठ्यक्रम शैक्षिक आयोजकों व कर्मचारियों का भी रखा जावे। बी एड स्तर पर आयोजना का एक अनिवार्य या ऐच्छिक पाठ्यक्रम रखा जावे। विश्वविद्यालयों में शैक्षिक आयोजना का विभाग स्थापित हो। एम. एड. एवं उच्च स्तर पर अनुसंधान हो। विश्वविद्यालयों मे आपस मे संबंध स्थापित हो।

Policy Resolution on Education (1968), and Some Aspects of the Educational Development in the Fourth Plan

B. S. Goel

[The Government of India issued a Resolution on Educational Policy in 1968 The targets laid down in the draft 4th Plan show that the Policy Resolution was not given much consideration

According to the annual report of the Ministry of Education 1969–70, the allocation for education in the 4th Plan is the "lowest ever" and "this paucity of allocation will impede any vigorous drive to implement the national policy on education" The present article narrates this story briefly.]

THE Union Cabinet issued a Resolution on National Education Policy in 1968. Now that the Educational targets have been more or less finally fixed for the fourth plan period (1969-74), it would be not only interesting and instructive, but also highly desirable to view how far the policy enunciated in the Resolution has or has not influenced at least some of the major aspects of education.

The mimeographed monograph "Educational Development in the Fourth Plan", issued by the Education Division of the Planning Commission does not state much in this regard. The extracts from "Approach to the Fourth Plan" and other related papers show that much that was laid down in the Policy Resolution has at least been verbally emphasised. The draft fourth plan also emphasises, "The recommendations of Education Commission (1964-66) form the basis of National

Policy on Education and provide the framework for the formulation of the fourth-plan."

The Constitutional Directive

This exposition may indeed appear satisfying. But is it really so in practice? The question is very essential in the Indian context, as in the last twenty years we have introduced such a wide gap between words and their practice, that "words" have become suspect in the eyes, and indeed they may not bear much relationship to the actual practice.

Let us, for example, examine one aspect concerned with the provision of free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of fourteen, as provided in Article 45 of the Constitution. The Resolution wants 'strenuous efforts' in this direction. Not only this, it also talks of reducing the wastage and stagnation to make the provision effective.

A study of the draft fourth plan, however, shows that there is no sign for strenuous efforts. It envisages that by 1973-74, the enrolment would be 85% (against 92.3% suggested by the Education Division of Planning Commission) for the age-group 6-11, and 42.1% (against suggested 45.9%) for the age-group 11-14. Thus a total enrolment for the age-group 6-14 would be 60.9% by 1973-74.

The figure 60 9% has two aspects. First it is hardly promising and gives no idea of the "strenuous efforts." Secondly, this figure is only in respect to the enrolment which is very different from the turn-out of actual literates in 1973-74.

All the students of history of Indian education know that enrolment figures have been very deceptive. Two phenomena—one, bogus enrolment, two, wastage-are responsible for it. It has been established that the phenomenon of bogus enrolment was widespread before independence. This was perhaps done to satisfy the critical public opinion about the expansion and growth of primary education. This may be equally so today. Although no direct evidence from any report is available in this connection, yet the decrease in the enrolment from class I to class II (about 40%) is remarkably significant and can allow certain deductions. Economic cause has throughout been described as the major cause of wastage. The students are removed from the school because the parents need their help in work. The question arises that if the students have to be removed from school for helping their parents in work, they should be removed at an age when they are really physically fit for the work. This has been stated by some educational authorities in the past that this age is not less than eight years. The presence of children below this age "must be less of a help than a hindrance" at home. Thus they should not be removed before they complete two years in the school. Further, it is also not understandable that if the parents have to withdraw their children just after one year, or even before, why they should send them to school at all, especially when it does involve some expenditure and inconvenience also. It becomes clear, as such, that some students are simply enrolled on the register but they never attend the school.

The enrolment figures which the planners herald become further meaningless if it is recognised that "at the primary stage 60% of the students, who enter class I, do not get even permanent literacy because they drop out before reaching class IV."

The words of the Directive may mean simply the provision of facilities for enrolment to the planners. But the spirit of the Directive really means that the children of the age-group 6-14 should be educated. Thus by no stretch of imagination can one feel that the principle is really being implemented. Not only this, one can also easily dismiss the claim of the planners that the Directive would be completely implemented "latest by 1990-91", as a clever ruse to hoodwink the public opinion.

Literacy

Closely allied to it is the problem of illiteracy. The Resolution stated "The liquidation of mass illiteracy is necessary not only for promoting participation in the working of democratic institutions and for accelerating programmes of production, especially in agriculture, but for quickening the tempo of national development in general." In fact, illiteracy and ignorance perhaps mark the greatest problem of education today. This is true that the percentage of literacy went up from 16.6% in 1951 to 24% in 1961 and 28.6% in 1966 and about 33% in 1968-69. (The sad fact is that out of this, only 8% have got education beyond the 8th class). These statistics may mislead us to accept that the problem has decreased. But the truth is that it has grown in size. The number of illiterates has gone up from 298 million in 1951 to 334 million in 1961, and to about 350 millions in 1968-69. During the whole freedom struggle, the Nationalists demanded that in order to eradicate illiteracy "Education must pour and not trickle." Parulekar, the noted educationist said, "...the greatest truth in mass education is that slow progress is no progress at all." But after coming to power people have become 'responsible' and forgotten what they themselves asked for. The Resolution, as pointed out earlier, showed concern for the problem, but the authors of the fourth draft plan speak in a very round about way in this regard and make no commitment. The ideal, it appears, has been abandoned altogether.

Equality of Opportunity

Another policy point which the Resolution wanted to be implemented was the ideal of "equality of opportunity" in education. It laid stress on the removal of regional imbalances, common school system, education of girls and backward classes, and also facilities for educating the physically and mentally handicapped.

The regional imbalances, to take one point only, present a great problem. While some states like Kerala, Madras, Mysore, Maharashtra, and Nagaland have given high priority and are in the lead in respect of universal primary education, some states like U.P., Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan are still very backward,

and have not gone even the half-way. How the imbalances would be removed, nobody knows. The draft fourth plan speaks of pilot-projects, part-time education, setting up "schools within the easy reach of every child." But the statewise allocations of resources as shown in the plan hold no promise for it. Thus no better line than the previous one has been suggested. No idea has been given as to how "inequality" should be curbed which is the result of social and economic conditions.

The plan, no doubt, lays stress on the education of girls and of the backward communities. But how? This is easy to speak words, and the Resolution spoke like this, "The Government of India are convinced that a radical reconstruction of education on the broad lines recommended by the Education Commission is essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialist pattern of society." But where is the hint in the draft fourth plan that the idea of radical reconstruction has been accepted.

Secondary and Higher Education

The Resolution stated, "Educational opportunity at the secondary (and higher) level is a major instrument of social change and transformation. Facilities for secondary education should accordingly be extended expeditiously to the areas and classes which have been denied these in the past." The need for new needs and colleges was also underlined. But in the draft fourth plan, more emphasis has been laid on the consolidation and improvement aspects. It talks about enriching the content and improving the quality of secondary education. In a country where about 92% people do not receive education beyond eighth class, we talk of consolidation of, and social change through, secondary education! Similarly the authors of the plan also appear to have disregarded the direction of the Resolution regarding the education for agriculture and industry.

But this is bound to be so when we are out to change the society just by certain words and expressions, without ever being ready for any sincere action. One is compelled to say this when one studies the expenditure figures. In fact, the greatest advance in educational thinking was reflected in the Resolution when it stated, "The aim should be gradually to increase the investment in education so as to reach a level of expenditure of six per cent on the national income as early as possible." And indeed, the Planning group in education did something in this direction when it suggested a minimum outlay of 1,300 crores. This was a heartening step in the right direction since the total expenditure on education was 1.2% of the national income in 1951, 1.9 per cent at the end of First Plan, 2.4 per cent at the end of Second plan, and 2.9 per cent at the end of third, and by accepting 1,300 crores, it was going to be 3.86 per cent at the end of the Fourth Plan. But the hopes were dashed to the ground when it was restricted to Rs. 840 crores only—Rs. 271 crores in the central and Rs. 569 crores in the State sectors, by the Planning Commission, in the final plan.

Bright Aspects

This is very evident from what has been said above that the targets set in the Fourth Plan do not reflect the policy to any significant extent laid down in the Resolution, although some words and expression may be similar. This is normally the rule but there are exceptions also. Two of them are in respect to teacher-education and science education. About the teacher-status and his emoluments, it does not say much but it recognises the need for the quality and training of teachers, and proposes to train the "bulk of the teachers" by the end of the Fourth Plan. But brighter than this is the aspect of science education in the country. The plan stresses this aspect and states, "The efforts in the Fourth Plan will be to provide facilities for the teaching of science as an integral part of the general education programme at least upto the high school stage." It also speaks of the expansion and improvement of science at the primary, secondary and university stages. As an evidence of sincerity, the planning group on education suggested a provision of Rs. 22.50 crores at the primary stage for science education, which is indeed significant. The country indeed would watch with interest the impact of this planning on science education. This is more so because science is the only key which opens the gates to modernity.

सार–संक्षेप

राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति प्रस्ताव (68) और चतुर्थ पंचवर्षीय योजना में शैक्षिक लक्ष्य

—बी. एस. गोयल

निःशुल्क अनिवार्य प्राथमिक शिक्षा के उद्देश्य की पूर्ति के लिए 'प्रस्ताव' मे जिन विशेषतया दृढ प्रयत्नों का उल्लेख किया गया है इस संबंध मे योजना में निर्धारित नामांकन लक्ष्य न तो अपने आप मे 'विशेषतया दृढ' ही है और न उत्साहवर्धक ही। इसी तरह साक्षरता की समस्या को हल करने के लिए भी योजना में कोई स्पष्ट संकेत नही है। सबके लिए शिक्षा के अवसर की समानता मे 'प्रस्ताव' में स्पष्ट संकेत है किन्तु योजना मे यह कहीं उल्लेख नहीं है कि इस उद्देश्य की पूर्ति कैसे की जायेगी। 'प्रस्ताव' मे माध्यमिक शिक्षा जिसे अभी 92% लोग प्राप्त नही कर पा रहे हैं, के विस्तार का उल्लेख है लेकिन योजना में विस्तार की अपेक्षा उसके दृढ़ीकरण पर ही बल दिया गया है। प्रस्ताव मे राष्ट्रीय आय का कम से कम 6% शिक्षा पर शीघ्रातिशीघ्र व्यय करने के लक्ष्य प्राप्त करने का सुझाव है जबकि चतुर्थ पंचवर्षीय योजना ड्राफ्ट में जहाँ शिक्षा पर 1,300 करोड के व्यय का प्रावधान किया गया था, योजना को अन्तिम रूप देते समय प्लैनिंग कमीशन ने इस मद में केवल 840 करोड़ (2.49%) ही स्वीकार किया है। प्रस्ताव और योजना के विभिन्न पहलुओं में विशेष अन्तर होते हुए भी शिक्षक प्रशिक्षण तथा विज्ञान-शिक्षा दोनों पर दोनों मे बल दिया है। —मु. हे. रा.

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limitations set by a feudal and traditional society, will need radical changes if it is to meet the purposes of a modernising democratic and socialistic society"[3], then a generation has been lost to the nation.

Before discussing how education can really play the role of an instrument of transformation of society it may be useful to have a brief review of the programmes undertaken in the field of educational development in the recent past on a national scale. The various steps taken to reform and reshape the educational system may be put in the following broad categories:

1. Quantitative expansion at all stages from primary to the university.
2. Expansion of vocational and technical education.
3. Expansion of teacher-training facilities.
4. Revision of curricula and text-books.
5. Reforms in the examination system.
6. Improvement of teaching techniques.
7. Provision of scholarships to the needy and meritorious students.
8. Structural changes in the administrative set-up to meet the demands of an expanding education.
9. Special facilities for the education of scheduled caste and tribes and backward classes.

It is not claimed here that the above list is a comprehensive one including all the programmes of educational development undertaken in the country. Neither it is the intention to go into the details of each scheme or programme and evaluate its success or failure. But the point which needs emphasis is that how far these programmes have been helpful in ushering in the new order of society. It may be mentioned in this context that all these measures and many more have been taken up in other countries also which neither proclaim nor intend to usher in a socialist society. Some in fact consider these very improvements as a check for such tendencies to develop in their body politic.

To equate the provision of more and better facilities with a socialistic way of life and thinking is to mix up the issues. The basic approach to the planning of education needs a radical change, not only in the allocation of resources to different sectors on priority basis but a reappraisal of values, attitudes and outlook on life and here the role of education is significant not only for the school going population but to teachers, administrators, planners and in fact to every segment of society. Some references to the broad premises of our present thinking about educational programmes will make the issues clear.

Self-development as a cherished goal in education has been emphasized as an eternal principle by most of our educational thinkers. But what does it amount to in a society where the means of production are concentrated in the hands of a powerful minority ? In such a society it reduces the 'self' to a commodity to be bartered for petty material gains. The climate for self-development is only created in a society where the control of means of production passes from individual

hands to the society. In the present context of our development, if public sector is to occupy the commanding heights in the nation's economy, then the role of education in emphasizing the dedication of self to the society is very crucial.

Yet another approach to the educational planning adopted has been put forward as a conviction that the growth of education has to be on evolutionary lines in a democratic pattern of society. This argument is again a cover to hide the inefficiency, lack of bold decisions and unwillingness to bring radical measures. This approach suits very much the privileged few holding political, economic, social and intellectual power to perpetuate their hold on the society. This same approach for an evolutionary growth of education has been responsible for the back sliding in the field of primary and adult education. Here, it may be pointed out that the very idea of securing minimum educational facilities by way of providing primary education to all by say ten or fifteen years hence stems from the perpetuation of maintaining age-old distinctions between the "masses", and "classes". In spite of our idealisation of manual work concept the basic contradiction between the few who move up the ladder and those who form the base remains. Even if the target of compulsory elementary education is achieved, the fact remains that a vast majority of children will have to contend with a 6 or at best 8 years of formal schooling. This hardly prepares them for a life dedicated to play an effective role in socialistic transformation of society.

A well known fact which is conveniently forgotten by the elites in all walks of life is that the political emancipation of the country was neither preceded nor followed by social upheavals. The foundations of our conservative thinking in dealing with personal, family and caste matters remained intact. Education could have played an effective role in shaking this steel frame but unfortunately it was instrumental in the preservation of status quo. It may sound anachronistic but is true that many of our science faculties in Universities and Colleges are repositories of conservative and outmoded ideas. The scientific outlook on life and the scientific methodology in work which the teachers in these faculties are supposed to instil among the students lose meaning when they come to their own behaviour patterns, mode of thinking and acting in their personal lives and social dealings or on larger national and international issues. The prime need thus seems to be not an evolutionary growth in education but a crash programme to demolish the century old thinking on patterns of administration, attitude and way of thinking. The process of developing this basic orientation towards a new life pattern will involve the individual and also the institutions with a grim fight on ideological and social plane with the existing modes of thinking and behaviour. Thus education for socialism will have to be carried in each production centre, industrial or agricultural and also in all institutions providing formal education. A drastic change will also be necessary in the content and treatment of courses of study. Our

own notions about the superiority of products coming from formal institutions will need modification as the new education will not be confined to only these but will be vigorously carried out in work-centres.

It must be further realised that education for the new order cannot be left in the hands of those who do not feel any commitment with the basic ideology. The so-called diversity allowed in the field of education is conducive to the growth of class and caste distinctions in society. The regeneration of society through education is only possible if it is under the leadership of the committee workers at the centre as well as in states. It is unfortunate but true that education finds so little or no place in the programmes of major political parties in India. A recent evidence may be found in the session of the ruling Congress Party, where the only programme emphasized in education was the provision of milk to children having nutritional deficiency. No doubt a departure was made from the earlier thinking about the 'neutral' role of public servants and it was emphasized that a band of committed public servants is necessary to implement the programmes for the new social order. If we are really committed to socialism, then the government has to play a crucial role in committing education also to the new goals of society. Only these radical measures would make education an instrument of change and transformation of society. Otherwise the unsuitability of the existing system of education would always be repeated in future reports of commissions on Indian education.

सार-संक्षेप

समाजवादी भारत के लिये शिक्षा

–डी. सी. उप्रेती

यद्यपि भारत मे आजादी-प्राप्ति के समय से आज तक नियुक्त विभिन्न आयोगो एव समितियो ने शिक्षा के वर्तमान स्वरूप मे आमूल चूल परिवर्तन कर उसे समाज की आवश्यकताओ के अनुकूल बनाने की बात निरन्तर दोहराई है फिर भी शिक्षा प्रणाली के कतिपय अंगो मे सुख-सुविधाओं के सुधार व विस्तार से समाजवादी भारत की शिक्षा का श्रीगणेश नही हो सकता। आवश्यकता है विद्यार्थियों, अध्यापकों एव प्रशासको की मान्यताओ, आस्थाओं व दृष्टिकोणो के वाछनीय बदल की। अब तक की शैक्षिक मान्यताओं ने तो यथास्थिति भी न बनाये रखकर वर्ग भेद की खाई को ही गहरा किया है। वर्तमान राजनैतिक दलो के कार्यकलापों से भी उनकी शिक्षा के प्रति उदासीनता ही परिलक्षित होती है अतः शिक्षा संस्थाओ व विभिन्न कर्म केन्द्रों पर दी जाने वाली शिक्षा का सचालन व उसके पाठ्यक्रम का पुनः निर्धारण नये समाज की रचना करने वाले कार्यकर्ताओं द्वारा हो।

—ह. नं. मि.

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Institutional Planning and The Freedom of Teachers

B. P. Misra

SOME time back at an All India Seminar on Institutional Plan-g, Shri J. P. Naik and other edu-tionists emphasised the involve-ent of teachers in the educational anning of an institution with fficient amount of freedom to be ven to the teachers to implement e plan It all looked very rosy hen one went through the whole heme and the group discussions id reports read out on the last ay gave us a confidence and hope at the future of education in this ountry was not disappointing and India was bound to make long strides and achieve a high level of efficiency in the field of education.

I wish it were true but if wishes were horses everyone would ride. Unfortunately they are not, and hence a feeling of doubt and dejection. The problem of any reform and improvement in any walk of life is basically a problem of attitude and character. No amount of planning is going to improve matters unless we succeed in moulding the attitude of a teacher and instilling in him a sense of morality

required in any profession. I have purposely put the two—attitude and character—separately because the former is not entirely subjective but depends quite a lot on external factors whereas the latter is purely personal and cannot be governed by any circumstance whatsoever.

Let us take the question of attitude of a teacher regarding his work in a school or college. We presume that institutional planning will also form a part of the total school programme, if not today, in the near future, hence it will be just a normal routine for a teacher. How is a teacher, then, going to react to this planning? In brief, I will repeat what Mr Naik said, 'Let the teacher have a sense of personal achievement in what he does. Let his contribution in the total school programme be recognised. Let him have the feeling that he can also work as an innovator of certain plans and schemes in his area of specialisation and that in his own way he is contributing to the cause of education of the country.' Unless in the total scheme of things the place of a teacher as an individual is recognised there is little hope of any change in his attitude.

For decades together he has been knowing well that even in his own school or college, he is a non-entity. Barring a few members of the staff who, not because of their academic achievements or capacity in organising activities but for something else, become the hot favourites of their bosses, the commoner and the meritorious have no place in a school as members of the school community Even the academician can sometime enjoy this favour provided he is prepared to merge his identity with the rest and start believing in the dictum 'The King can do no wrong.' This certainly is a very difficult situation for every member of the staff to tackle, with the result that those, who can adjust, gain recognition, whereas others, who can't and have a free mind and a critical eye, go the way the dog goes. They then split up into two groups—the neutrals and the adversaries. The adversaries need not exist on the official map of an institution and the neutrals are just neutrals—harmless, innocent creatures who can easily be passed over since they don't have the guts to rise and say anything even if they feel it is wrong. This easily gives us a picture of different attitudes that are formed among the teachers of a single institution and these attitudes, of course, go a long way in the success or failure of any school programme.

The role of the head of the institution in this regard is very important. It is he who is responsible for the various attitudes the members of the staff develop in his school, and despite the fact that old habits die hard, he can break them and help in the formation of fresh attitudes among his teachers by his foresight, sympathy, impartiality and honesty. In my own experience I have come across a number of colleagues who did not do even an iota of work given to them except their routine teaching, who were most unconcerned to what was happening in their school or college, but who did wonders as soon as there was a change in administration and a more reasonable and sympathetic Principal took over the

charge. It is not always necessary to show undue favours to extract work. On my part, I feel, such administrators do more harm to themselves and to the institution than good. An average teacher does not expect any such favour, but he certainly stands in need of a candid smile and a word of encouragement in what he does. Further, sometimes, some honest and sincere teachers, even though they are not in the limelight, bring some good and positive suggestions for the betterment of the school. From the point of view of administration they may not be wholly practicable. But this is no reason why they should be condemned outright and thrown to winds. And if unfortunately this is done in the presence of his colleagues, the harm is complete. There is always a possibility of looking at the whole scheme from the teacher's point of view and see how far he is genuinely interested in the proposal, examine the part he himself is prepared to play, and how is that going to benefit his students. In exceptional cases even if the entire scheme indirectly aims at giving some personal recognition to the teacher, he should be allowed to carry it out, unless, of course, it is either beyond the means of the school or it involves lot of disturbance in the school time-table. But human beings as we are, we sometimes are so intolerant of others recognition and success that if we are subordinates and favourites to the head, we would go and speak something against the colleague and his scheme, and thus prejudice the boss and if, by chance, we wear the crown ourselves and have the right and authority to approve or disapprove, we will nip the whole thing in the bud. The poor teacher naturally becomes indifferent and at times averse to the school programme. This is a disease which unfortunately has infected even some of the good institutions in the country and just as a little insect can eat away the whole plant, some most up-to-date and modern institutions are the victims of this malady with the result that in time to come one may witness massive and impressive buildings and latest equipments but hushed voices, irritated faces, unruly students and poor results. I yet remember my college days when one of my teachers used to say, 'It is one thing that you have been through the college, but what is important is whether the college has been through you.' How very true it is of education as a whole ! This precisely brings me to the point that in our country there is nothing like freedom to a teacher, he is just a part of a big machine where he is to move as the machine moves. There is little scope for experimentation, much less for innovation. The laurels in all cases go to the head, the rebukes in hundred per cent cases are his share. To my mind this may be partly because of the lack of experience of the head as a teacher himself or partly because he is not quite up-to-date in his knowledge of educational practices and techniques. But, sometimes, it is the other way also. Some heads of the institutions are led away by anything new, whether it is material, equipment or technique, and in their desire to have the latest in their institution they will divert funds

from some of the most pressing needs and allow them to suffer on that score. It is painful sometimes to see the academic programme of a school suffer without teachers whereas there is no dearth of money for buying computers, tape-recorders, godrej racks and what not. I do not in any way undermine the importance of these things in our institutions provided the basic needs have already been met, but so long as you see classes going without teachers and students whiling away their time here and there, you are expected first to make arrangement for their teaching and, then, think of computers, coolers and godrej racks. One may say that in government machinery it is not always possible to divert funds from one item to another, but I am sure the head of an institution can do a lot if he has the will to do it. In all such cases one has to be very realistic in his approach and I am prepared to share the view of old educationists that every Headmaster and Principal must teach for some periods in his institution, howsoever hard-pressed he may be for time. One can never know some problems of the students unless one enters the class-room and faces a class. I should be excused for this impertinence but let me put this straight question to my friends in administration, 'How many of us are prepared to be regular teachers along with our duties as Heads ?'

Attitude apart, the success of institutional planning depends equally on the type of people who handle it. It is a matter of basic honesty for every individual involved in the programme. This integrity and honesty of character is a must for the teacher if he is to play any role. Without this basic honesty in one's character the freedom of a teacher has no meaning. As I have already pointed out, for this aspect of one's character there is no one else to be blamed. It is hundred per cent subjective. In some it is inherent; they have the steadfastness to resist any temptation and allurement. There are others who lack it. They have to acquire it. But so long as you and I am to remain in this profession, we have to abide by a certain code of morals and one important rule of this code is the conscientious discharge of our duty irrespective of all handicaps. It does not befit a teacher to go about saying that he would have done wonders if he had been given certain facilities or favours. Favours or no favours, facilities or no facilities, we should contribute our very best in all the institutional activities for the love of them. Let us not be Milton and say 'Doth God exact day labour light denied ?.' But that other Milton who said towards the end, 'Who best bear His mild yoke they serve Him best'. A teacher needs freedom to work, freedom to go in new directions of knowledge, freedom to experiment new techniques, freedom to try out new projects, but, if he starts using this freedom in cutting his periods and classes, in coming late to the school, in doing private tuitions during school hours, in seeking cheap popularity amongst the school and college authorities then the value of freedom is lost.

Teacher's freedom is a freedom with restriction. I think there is

no profession in the world which can boast of such a freedom. Imagine, the whole society has reposed its confidence in us and it is as a result of that confidence that it completely hands over its wards—boys and girls—to our charge. It is for us to mould them in any shape or form. And we continue to enjoy this freedom and favour from society for quite a number of years. During this period we are the supreme monarchs. Who can forget that Dashrath could not have the courage to refuse sending Rama and Lakshamana with Vishwamitra once he demanded them? Such was the way a teacher had! But the teacher could get that privilege, that honour, because he regulated freedom given to him in the light of certain self-imposed restrictions. These restrictions were much more severe than what any penal code could think of. The interest of the pupil was the sole objective of the teacher. He did not work because somebody saw him and gave him a lift. These were too cheap considerations for him. He worked and worked sincerely because it involved the good of his pupil and the good of his pupil involved the good of society and nation.

It is unfortunate that if today we have fallen from that pedestal, it is because of our own doing. We have started misusing this freedom and at times one shudders to think to what extreme can such creatures go. I know a colleague of mine who would never work, who would sit in his room and smoke when the bell had already gone and the boys were wanting him in the class, who would not submit his application for the period of his absence from the college and would assert that he was present, who would never take monthly tests but would enter marks, who would not take attendance in the class and yet would show all students present, and over and above all, would go about threatening and boasting that since so and so among the higher ups was very well known to him, nobody could dare touch him in any act of indiscipline. I am sad to say that this state of affairs continues all over the country. What one wonders is how they are tolerated! But the fact remains that they happily draw their salary every month and preach their ideology to the newcomers. Such teachers are a disgrace to the profession.

Before I close I have once again to emphasise that the malady actually lies in our mind and unless we have treated this malady no amount of planning on any level is going to raise the falling standards of education. I agree that institutional planning can be administered as a medicine in small doses to this ailing patient, but before we go in for school-complexes we have to take sufficient care in liquidating the mental complexes which have been formed in the body of this suffering community of teachers and administrators.

<u>सार-संक्षेप</u>

विद्यालय योजना और शिक्षक स्वातन्त्र्य

—ओ. पी. मिश्र

विद्यालय योजनाएँ शिक्षा के गिरते स्तर को सुधारने में तब तक प्रभावी नहीं हो सकती जब तक कि शिक्षक का वर्तमान

व्यवहार बदल नहीं दिया जाय और उसके मन में व्यवसाय के प्रति सदाचार के भाव विकसित न कर दिए जायें। व्यवहार (attitude) का निर्माण बाह्य तत्त्वों पर ही आधारित होता है और कर्मचारी-वर्ग के विभिन्न व्यवहारों के लिए शाला-प्रधान की भूमिका बहुत महत्त्वपूर्ण होती है। वह अपनी दूरदर्शिता, सहानुभूति, निष्पक्षता, ईमानदारी व सरल मुस्कान के साथ प्रेरणाप्रद-शब्दों से अपने साथी कर्मचारियों के अनावश्यक व्यवहारों को छुड़वाकर नवीन व्यवहारों के निर्माण में सफल हो सकता है।

शिक्षक के व्यवहार के अतिरिक्त शाला योजना की सफलता शिक्षक की व्यावसायिक नैतिकता पर बहुत कुछ निर्भर करती है। नैतिकता पूर्ण रूप से आत्मनिष्ठ अनुभूति है और बाह्य परिस्थितियाँ इस पर कम प्रभाव डालती हैं। शैक्षिक व्यवसाय में शिक्षक को काम करने, ज्ञानार्जन करने, प्रयोग व परियोजनाओं के लिए पूर्ण आजादी चाहिए और यह आजादी व्यावसायिक नैतिकता के उत्थान में निश्चय ही सहायक होती है। किन्तु आजादी का दुरुपयोग शाला देरी से आने में, कक्षाएं न लेने में, शाला समय में ही प्राइवेट ट्यूशन करने में व सस्ती लोकप्रियता अर्जित करने में किया जाय तो नैतिकता का मूल ही समाप्त हो जाता है। इसलिए शिक्षक की आजादी स्वयं शिक्षक द्वारा स्थापित, प्रतिबन्धयुक्त होती है।

यह दुर्भाग्य की बात है कि वर्तमान में भारतीय शिक्षक को किसी प्रकार की आजादी नहीं है। उसका मस्तिष्क व्याधिग्रस्त है। उसे अपने मस्तिष्क को व्याधिमुक्त करना ही होगा, और तब बड़ी से बड़ी योजनाएं स्वतः सफलता पूर्वक क्रियान्वित की जा सकेंगी।

शाला योजना शिक्षक की मनोवृत्ति में नूतन परिवर्तन लाने व शैक्षिक आजादी देने और दिलाने की दिशा में अवश्य ही सूक्ष्म किन्तु सफल प्रयास हो सकता है बशर्ते कि हमारे शिक्षा-प्रशासक शैक्षणिक-संस्थाओं के प्रधान व शिक्षक स्वयं मुक्त मस्तिष्क से विचार करें।

—मु. दे. रा.

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शैक्षिक आयोजना का प्रमुख आधार

विद्यालय-योजना

चन्द्रशेखर भट्ट

किसी कार्य को सुव्यवस्थित ढंग से सम्पन्न करने का संकल्पपूर्वक उपक्रम ही योजना कहलाता है। योजना शब्द संस्कृत की युज् समाधौ या युज् संयमने धातु से निष्पन्न हुआ है। इस प्रकार इस शब्द का अर्थ है—किसी कार्य का सम्यक् आधान करना, कार्यप्रणाली की रूपरेखा को मन में भली प्रकार से बिठा लेना, भली प्रकार से कार्य में प्रवृत्त होना।

बिना योजना के किसी भी कार्य में प्रवृत्त होना सम्भव नहीं है। यह कहा गया है कि प्रथम कोटि के मनुष्य विघ्नों के भय से कार्यारम्भ ही नहीं करते। मध्य कोटि के मनुष्य कार्यारम्भ तो कर देते हैं, परन्तु विघ्नों से घबरा कर कार्य को अधूरा ही छोड़ दिया करते हैं। उत्तम मनुष्य वे होते हैं जो जिस कार्य का आरम्भ कर देते हैं, उसे पूरा करके ही छोड़ते हैं। चाहे कितने ही विघ्न उपस्थित हो जायं वे उनसे नहीं डरते, साहसपूर्वक उनका सामना करते हैं और अन्त में उन पर विजय प्राप्त कर लेते हैं। ऐसे व्यक्ति योजनापूर्वक कार्य करके ही अपनी अभीष्ट सिद्धि करते हैं।

जब भारत पराधीन था, हम अपना कार्य अपने ढंग से योजनापूर्वक करने में समर्थ नहीं थे। पराधीन मस्तिष्क कभी स्वाधीन चिन्तन नहीं कर सकता। इसीलिये वह अपने कार्य को योजनापूर्वक सम्पन्न भी नहीं कर सकता। पराधीनता से मुक्ति पाने के लिये विगत सहस्राब्दि में सैकड़ों यत्न किये गये, परन्तु सफलता न मिल सकी। इसका कारण सुयोजित ढंग से यत्न न किया जाना ही माना जा सकता है। सुयोजित ढंग से योजनापूर्वक कार्य करने का एक

लक्षण यह भी है कि उसमें सभी सहकर्मियों और सहधर्मियों का सहयोग रहता है। यह सभी संभव होता है जब योजनापूर्वक सभी साधनस्रोतों को संयुक्त किया जाता है। वेदों में श्रम में प्रयुक्त होने वाले व्यक्ति को कवि कहा गया है। जो धर्म काव्यसर्जना करने वाले कवि का है वही योजना बनाकर श्रम में प्रवृत्त होने वाले का माना जा सकता है।

हमारी शिक्षा और योजना

भारत के स्वाधीन होते ही हमने प्रगति-पथ पर चलने की योजनाएं बनाईं। यद्यपि इन योजनाओं का अभीष्ट प्रभाव नहीं पड़ सका, न इनके लक्ष्य ही सिद्ध हो पाये, परन्तु यह तो असंदिग्ध रूप से कहा जा सकता है कि आगे बढ़ने का इसके अतिरिक्त अन्य कोई उपाय नहीं हो सकता था। इन योजनाओं का प्रभाव शिक्षा के क्षेत्र में तो विशेष रूप से देखा जा सकता है। शिक्षा का प्रसार तीन पंचवर्षीय योजनाओं में जितना हुआ है उतना शीघ्र संसार के किसी अन्य राष्ट्र में इतने कम समय में नहीं हुआ होगा।

शिक्षा से सम्बन्धित त्रुटियां भी इन योजनाओं में अनेक हुई हैं। इन योजनाओं में शिक्षा के प्रसार पर जितना बल दिया गया है उतना शिक्षा के स्तर पर नहीं दिया गया। शिक्षा का स्वरूप भी अंग्रेजों के समय जैसा ही चलता रहा। इससे और कुछ भले ही हुआ हो, स्वाधीन चिन्तन की परम्परा लगभग दब सी गई। विद्यालय में ऊंची से ऊंची डिग्री लेकर निकला हुआ व्यक्ति अपना पेट भरने में भी असक्षम रहता है और इधर-उधर नौकरी के लिये भटकता रहता है। उसकी जानकारी का क्षेत्र अत्यन्त सीमित होता है। विद्यालयीय शिक्षा का उद्देश्य मनुष्य में जन्मजात रूप से निहित, जीवन-यापन के लिये अपेक्षित, व्यावहारिक ज्ञान के विकास और प्रकाशन में योगदान करना होना है। इसके स्थान पर वर्तमान *शिक्षा मनुष्य के व्यावहारिक ज्ञान को ही* समाप्त कर देती है। इसीलिये बहुधा यह कहा जाता है कि जो जितना पढ़ा लिखा होता है, वह उतना ही व्यावहारिक जीवन से अपरिचित, मूढ़ होता है।

हमारी शिक्षा-योजना सम्पूर्ण देश के लिये एक नहीं है। अलग-अलग राज्यों में अलग-अलग प्रकार से प्रयोग चल रहे हैं। सर्वत्र ही शिक्षा का केन्द्र औसत दर्जे का विद्यार्थी है। न तो ऐसी शिक्षा से विशिष्ट प्रतिभाशाली छात्रों को आत्मविकास में सहायता मिलती है और न अतिसाधारण छात्रों को अपना बौद्धिक स्तर सुधारने के लिये ही अवसर मिलता है। विदेशी अनुकरण तो सर्वत्र है ही, जिसके कारण अपनी अच्छाइयों की ओर भी ध्यान नहीं जाता। इन परिस्थितियों में शिक्षा एक अति-महत्त्वाकांक्षा की सूत्रधारिणी मात्र बनकर रह जाती है। उसमें *प्रतिभा का उचित मूल्यांकन* होना सम्भव ही नहीं है। ऐसा इसलिये होता है कि हमारी योजनाएँ कुछ मस्तिष्कों की कल्पना से जनित हैं और उनको कुछ लोगों द्वारा जन-साधारण पर थोप दिया जाता है। न तो यहाँ विद्यार्थी व उसके अभिभावक को यह सोचने का अधिकार है कि विद्यार्थी क्या व कैसे पढ़ना चाहता है और न उनको अनुचित कार्यों को रोकने का ही अधिकार है।

विद्यालय-योजना

योजनाओं की त्रुटियों को दूर करने का दायित्व समाज के सभी घटकों का है। शैक्षणिक जगत् की समस्याओं को इससे सम्बन्ध रखने वाले शिक्षणालय ही दूर कर सकते हैं। इसीलिये विद्यालय-योजनाओं का महत्त्व बढ़ जाता है। विद्यालय-योजना का तात्पर्य है—वह योजना जिसे विद्यालय संचालित करता है। एक निश्चित उद्देश्य

की सिद्धि के लिये सुव्यवस्थित ढंग से आगे बढ़ना ही विद्यालय-योजना की कार्यप्रणाली है। कोठारी शिक्षा-आयोग ने राष्ट्रीय योजनाओं में विद्यालयों की व्यापक भूमि का आकलन किया है और यह दायित्व विद्यालयों पर डाला है कि वे अपने-अपने क्षेत्रों में योजना की लक्ष्यसिद्धि करें। इस दृष्टि से विद्यालय-योजना का महत्व भी बढ जाता है। अपना संकल्प, अपनी कार्यप्रणाली, अपना लक्ष्य-निर्धारण और स्वत. लक्ष्यसिद्धि – यही विद्यालय-योजना का स्वरूप है। विद्यालय-योजना केवल सामने आई हुई समस्या को सुलझाने के लिये ही नही होती, वरन् विद्यालय की कार्यप्रणाली मे अपने ढंग से सुधार करने व अपने विकास का मार्ग स्वयं निर्धारित करने के लिये होती है। यह निश्चित है कि प्रत्येक व्यक्ति को अपना मार्ग स्वयं पार करना होता है। कार्य को स्वयं करने की भावना ही विद्यालय-योजना का मूलाधार है। अपने विकास की योजना स्वय बनाकर विद्यालय अपना भविष्य निश्चित करता है, अपना वर्तमान बनाता है और अपने भूतकाल का आगे बढ़ने में अपने ढंग से उपयोग करता है।

प्राय: विद्यालयों की स्वतंत्रता की बात कही जाती है। स्वतंत्रता का तात्पर्य होता है – अपना लक्ष्य-निर्धारण करने और लक्ष्य-सिद्धि के लिये साधनों को उपलब्ध करने और उनका प्रयोग करने की स्वतंत्रता। किसी विद्यालय की योजना कितनी मौलिक और प्रभावशाली है– यह बात इस पर निर्भर है कि वह विद्यालय-योजना बनाने और उसको क्रियान्वयन करने मे कितना स्वतंत्र है। विद्यालय-योजनाए विद्यालयों की स्वतंत्रता की पोषणा करती हैं, अध्यापकों को मनोविश्राम के अवसर प्रदान करती हैं तथा उन्हें इस विश्वास को स्थायी बनाने की सुविधा देती हैं। इनमे अध्ययन-अध्यापन के स्तर में सुधार होना है। छात्रों मे इनमे प्राप्त साधनों का समुचित उपयोग करने की भावना जागती है। उनमें आद्योपान्त समुन्नयन भावना का विकास होता है तथा निश्चय और क्रियान्विति मे सामंजस्य स्थापित करने की भावना जागती है।

विद्यालय योजनाएं दो प्रकार की हो सकती हैं – (१) विद्यालय के सुधार व विकास की योजना तथा (२) अपने क्षेत्र के विकास के लिये विद्यालय द्वारा निर्मित योजना। इनमें से कुछ योजनाएं स्वल्पकालिक हो सकती हैं और कुछ दीर्घकालिक। अनेक स्वल्पकालिक योजनाए एक दीर्घकालिक योजना के अंग के रूप मे चलती रह सकती है। इनके साधन दीर्घकालिक योजना की सिद्धि में सहायक हो सकते हैं। विद्यालय-योजनाए अपने जिले व राज्य की योजना का अग बनकर अंततोगत्वा सम्पूर्ण राष्ट्र की योजना का महत्त्वपूर्ण अग बन सकती हैं। विद्यालय-योजनाओं के असफल होने की अदूरदर्शिता और अक्षमता होती है। विद्यालयों में योजनाओं की सफलता असंदिग्ध होती है।

योजना का महत्त्व

इतना होने पर भी यह सुज्ञात तथ्य है कि विगत वर्षों में शिक्षा का स्तर बराबर गिरता चला गया है। इसका एक कारण यह भी है कि शिक्षा के अधिकाधिक प्रसार के लक्ष्य को लेकर चलते समय उसका स्तर प्राय: गौण हो गया है। विद्यालय-योजनाएँ स्तर गिरने की समस्या का समाधान प्रस्तुत कर सकती हैं। योजना साधन है और सुधार उसका लक्ष्य। सुधार छात्र, शिक्षक और शिक्षण-पद्धति का तो हो ही सकता है साथ ही उन परिस्थितियों का भी हो सकता है जिनमें कोई भी छात्र, शिक्षक या शिक्षण-पद्धति असफल हो जाती है। वस्तुत: सफलता का तात्पर्य है उस क्षण की खोज जहां मनुष्य की गति अपना औचित्य खोज

लेती है। यह दशा उपर्युक्त परिस्थितियों की देन होता है।

विद्यालय दो प्रकार की परिस्थितियो मे कार्य करता है। प्रथम प्रकार की वाह्य-भौतिक परिस्थितियाँ होती हैं। दूसरे प्रकार की परिस्थितियो का सम्बन्ध भावना-जगत् से होता है। कई विद्यालयो को स्थानीय राजनीतिक खींचतान का शिकार होना पडता है। विद्यालय-योजना ऐसी खींचतान को समाप्त करने मे सहायक हो सकती है। प्रकाश वहीं से मिलता है जहाँ दीपक हो। विद्यालय अपने क्षेत्र मे विवेक की ज्योति को विकीर्ण करने वाला एकमात्र प्रकाश स्तम्भ माना जा सकता है। आधुनिक काल मे समाज का जितना अहित राजनीतिक पूर्वाग्रहो और अन्धविश्वासो से हुआ है उतना किसी से नही। विद्यालय योजना द्वारा ऐसा वातावरण बनाया जा सकता है जिसमे ऐसे पूर्वाग्रहो और अन्धविश्वासों को कोई स्थान न हो। यदि विद्यालय अपनी योजना द्वारा स्थानीय समाज के तात्कालिक हिताहितों के प्रति स्वस्थ दृष्टिकोण प्रस्तुत करके अपनी उपयोगिता प्रत्यक्ष रूप से समाज के सामने प्रकट करे तो कोई कारण नहीं है कि विद्यालय को अपने विकास मे समाज का सहयोग न मिले। सच यह है कि हमारे किसी भी विद्यालय का समाज से सीधा सम्पर्क नही है और इसीलिए साधारण जनता विद्यालय की अपनी तात्कालिक परिस्थिति में कोई उपयोगिता नहीं समझती। इसलिये न अध्यापक को समाज मे समुचित आदर मिलता है और न शिक्षा विभाग के अधिकारियों को ही अन्य अधिकारियो के समान, प्रतिष्ठा का पात्र समझा जाता है। यह भले ही चौंकाने वाला तथ्य हो, परन्तु है अवश्य कि भारत मे शैक्षणिक जगत् से सम्बद्ध ४½ करोड व्यक्तियों का श्रम राष्ट्रीय उत्पादन से असम्बद्ध हो। जिस राष्ट्र के सामने इतनी समस्याएँ हों, अनिवार्य अकाल पड़ते हो और शत्रु निरन्तर हानि पहुँचाने को कटिबद्ध हों, वहाँ इतने सारे लोग अनुत्पादक श्रम करते हो इससे बड़ी विडम्बना और क्या हो सकती है? जो श्रमपूर्वक राष्ट्रीय उत्पादन मे भाग लेते हैं और कर देकर राज्य का कोष भरते हैं उनके सामने विद्यालयो की तात्कालिक कोई उपयोगिता नहीं है। इसीलिए समाज का सहयोग विद्यालयो को नही मिलता। विवेकपूर्वक विद्यालय-योजना का निर्माण करके यह स्थिति समाप्त की जा सकती है।

जो योजना विद्यालय का सम्बन्ध अपने परिवेश से जोड सकती है वही योजना जिला, राज्य और राष्ट्र की योजना से भी उसका सम्बन्ध जोड़ने मे समर्थ हो सकती है। आवश्यकता इस बात की है कि ऐसी योजनाओ का अपना सम्बल हो और व्यापक दृष्टिकोण हो। विद्यालय-योजना के निर्माताओ को चाहिये कि वे अपने साधन-स्रोतों को दृष्टि मे रखते हुए और अपनी आवश्यकताओ को समझकर छात्र, शिक्षक, परीक्षक आदि को केन्द्र मानकर उनकी कार्यप्रणाली में यथोचित सुधार करने के लिये योजना बनायें और सामाजिक सन्दर्भों में इनमे से प्रत्येक की उपयोगिता निश्चित करने का प्रयत्न करें।

राष्ट्रीय नीति सामने हो, शिक्षा के उद्देश्य सामने हो, व्यक्ति और समाज की आवश्यकताओं की प्रत्यक्ष जानकारी हो, साधन-स्रोतों की उपलब्धि का निश्चय हो—इसके उपरान्त मानव-श्रम-शक्ति का उपयोग करने वाली योजना बनाई जाय तो शैक्षणिक जगत् मे अपूर्व क्रान्ति लाई जा सकती है। सुधार के लिये क्रमिक उपक्रम अपनाया जाना चाहिये। ऐसी योजना को दिखावे से बचाया जाना अत्यन्त आवश्यक है। यदि साधन-स्रोत उपलब्ध न हों तो साधनों को देखते हुए प्राथमिकता निश्चित कर लेना अत्यन्त आवश्यक है। योजना मे लचीलापन होना चाहिए ताकि पहली बात को सबसे पहला स्थान दिया जा सके।

योजना बनाते समय अभावों का स्पष्ट ज्ञान होना चाहिये और उन्हीं की पूर्ति के लिये प्रयत्न करते हुए अध्ययन-अध्यापन में सुधार किया जाना चाहिये। योजनाओं को अन्तिम रूप देने के पहले प्रशिक्षित व्यक्तियों, शिक्षाशास्त्रियों व प्रतिष्ठित नागरिकों की भी सम्मति प्राप्त कर लेनी चाहिये। सबके सहयोग से ही किसी व्यापक प्रभाव वाली योजना में सफलता प्राप्त की जा सकती है। योजनाओं में छात्रों के मानसिक विकास में योगदान वाले पुस्तकालय आदि साधनों के सुधार को प्राथमिकता व क्रीड़ांगन, विद्यालय-भवन आदि को गौण स्थान मिलना चाहिये।

योजना में सबका यथोचित सहयोग प्राप्त करने के लिये अध्यापकों, छात्रों और स्थानीय सामाजिक कार्यकर्त्ताओं की समन्वित समिति होनी चाहिये। छात्रों और अध्यापकों को अपने लिये पृथक् योजना बनाने व उसे क्रियान्वित करने की प्रेरणा मिलती रहनी चाहिये। व्यक्तिशः बनने वाली ऐसी छोटी योजनाओं का सम्मिलित रूप ही विद्यालय-योजना हो सकती है। प्रत्येक योजना के दीर्घकालीन प्रभावों का आकलन समय-समय पर होते रहना चाहिये। इससे कार्यकर्त्ताओं को प्रोत्साहन मिलता है। अच्छाइयाँ स्वतः प्रकट होने लगती हैं और बुराइयों से बचकर आगे बढ़ने का अवसर मिल जाता है। विद्यालय-सुधार-योजना का तात्पर्य है विद्यालय के सभी घटकों के सुधार की योजना। इनमें से किसी भी घटक का तिरस्कार नहीं होना चाहिये। योजना की व्यवस्थित ढंग से क्रियान्विति और समय-समय पर क्रियान्वयन के परिणामों का मूल्यांकन ऐसी योजनाओं को सफल बनाने में सहायक होते हैं। निश्चय ही ऐसी योजनाओं का विद्यालयों के लिये अत्यधिक महत्त्व है।

SUMMARY

INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING

—Chandra Shekhar Bhatt

The period of five year plans in our country has witnessed an unparalleled expansion in the field of education. Since the planners did not pay any thought to quality, there has been an all-round deterioration in the standards of education. By and large our educational pattern retains its pre-independence character, with its emphasis on career to which an average student aspires. *The average student is the hub of our educational effort; it does not have much to offer to the brilliant and the mediocre.* Again our planning does not take into account the views of the parents and the students. To make matters worse, each state has its own plan. *Institutional planning can overcome all these short-comings.*

Institutional planning lays down the targets and formulates the methods for their achievement. Good institutional planning is so comprehensive that it involves in its preparation and execution, the students, teachers and the community. *It helps in the development of the school, in the growth of the students and the staff, and the community in solving its pressing problems. It provides opportunities for individual action and initiative.*

Society looks at school with indifference because the latter has withdrawn itself completely from the life of the community. Local community has its problems and drawbacks—*factions* and party strife for instance. Institutional planning can go a long way in fostering harmony among the rival groups. But it can do so only when it integrates the activities of the school with those of the local community, the school cannot get acceptance of the community so long as its own activities have no bearing on the activities of the farmers, workers and ordinary citizens. Institutional planning can help the school in becoming a vital, pulsating organ of the community.

—*M C.S.*

Social Transformation and Equal Educational Opportunity for Girls and Women

Chitra Naik

The Problem

Equal access for girls and women to all types of education is no longer a matter for debate even in developing countries like India. At the primary stage and also in the literacy programmes, the need to cover the total male and female population is recognised. The problem is that the recognition of the need has not yet been translated into action. A keen awareness of this failure became particularly highlighted in the recent meetings of two national bodies responsible for the promotion of education, viz. the Central Advisory Board of Education and the National Council for Women's Education. While the former lamented the slow progress of primary education as a whole, the latter quoted comparative statistics to emphasize the glaring disparity between the access achieved by boys and girls to different stages of education. The figures given in the Working Papers for the Council's meeting are quite disturbing, especially against the background of our avowed policies of equality, justice and democratic freedom. At the primary stage, in classes I to IV, the enrolment of boys of the age-group 6-11 is given as 96% whereas that of girls in the same age-group is only 59%. In classes VI to VIII, the enrolment of boys from the age-group 11-14 is 47% while that of girls is only 20%.

At the secondary stage, the enrolment of boys in classes IX to XI is 29% of the age-group 14-17 while that of girls is only 10%. In the case of higher education of various types, the disparities of access get further accentuated, but the question of total numbers involved is small for both. In spite of the constitutional directive of sex, we have failed to fulfil that obligation.

The distress of the CABE over our slow progress in primary education is understandable. Surprisingly, however, the Board did not stress that the lag in girls' figures quoted above shows that we have not failed in bringing boys to school. Nearly 96% of boys of the age of compulsion, i.e. 6-11, have been enrolled. If primary education is still limping ahead it is due to our failure to enrol girls of the age of 6-11 and our neglect of this fact. Moreover, in conference-level deliberations as well as educational planning the rural-urban comparisons of the enrolment figures for boys and girls, and particularly for girls, receive meagre attention. If these are closely studied, some more lacunae in thinking and planning are likely to be revealed. Yet, all said and done, it cannot be denied that some special efforts have been made in various parts of the country to bring little boys as well as girls to school by giving them free meals, books and slates, and clothes too in a few instances. A few scholarships for girls and increase in the provision of women teachers by giving them such facilities as quarters or the assistance of 'School-mother' as and when possible, are special measures for enrolling more girls in the rural areas. However, it is not clearly known as to what impact these incentives have had on the schooling of girls, especially in interior rural areas and tribal tracts. One also gets a feeling that we still look upon the appointment of women teachers in the rural areas, as concessions to traditionalism and not as essential steps for the adjustment of children to school. These measures usually stem not from considerations of the emotional and social needs of young children for whom a woman teacher is always better, but from the traditional concern for providing segregated education for boys and girls. The appointment of women teachers is due more to the unwillingness—even fearfulness—of parents to entrust the education of their daughters to male teachers, than to plan for encouraging women to take to the teaching profession.

The problem can be stated thus: in India, in spite of a theoretical acceptance of equality of opportunity to all citizens, in all spheres of life, in the interest of national development, we have failed to give equal educational access even to all girls of the age of 6-11, i.e. the age of compulsory primary education and that the disparity of access as between boys and girls is most glaring at all stages. The relationship of this disparity with slow national development needs to be explored. If primary education, which is a basic area of development, is not showing the progress required by considerations of all-sided development—economic, social and political—the lag in the access of girls to education must be blamed. Perhaps the educational backward-

ness of adult women in the rural areas has been the cause of low enrolment of girls and wastage and stagnation for all children. This is a matter which needs to be explored urgently if we desire to make a rapid headway in planning a realistic programme of educational development.

Our Policies are Basically Good

Our declared socio-economic and political policies are the most progressive in the world. They should be of the greatest help in giving girls and women an equal access to education and building up a sound base for the spread of primary education Besides, many traditional handicaps in women's social status have been removed under progressive legislation. Through legal measures, the majority of Indian women have been given a right to equal education; equal inheritance rights, equal rights in the legal aspects of marriage, equal political rights, equal access to positions in public life and equal pay for equal work. Together with other disadvantaged classes in our society, they too have the constitutional assurance of equality, freedom, justice and dignity of the individual. Our national plans expect that opportunities would be available to all citizens for participation in national development. It is encouraging to see that, from plan, the theme of equality of rights and responsibilities for all citizens of India is reiterated emphatically. The second Five-Year Plan said......

"..... nothing is more destructive of hope and more inhibitive of effort than a feeling that the accident of birth or a poor start in life is likely to come in the way of a capable person rising in life in terms of economic and social status .....

"The accent of the socialist pattern of society is on the attainment of positive goals, the raising of living standards, the enlargement of opportunities for all, the promotion of enterprise among the disadvantaged classes and the creation of a sense of partnership among all sections of the community".

The Third Five Year Plan took the same argument a step further and stated "A socialist economy must be efficient, progressive in its approach to science and technology and capable of growing steadily to a level at which the well being of the mass of population can be secured."

The same reasoning characterised the draft Fourth Plan, in the context of the objectives of planning and promotion of democracy. It said, "Democratic values are given effect to by encouraging the growth of a feeling of participation on the part of the small man, the promotion of enterprise among the disadvantaged classes and the creation of a sense of involvement in the transformation of society among all sections of the community. The broad objectives of planning could thus be defined as a rapid economic development accompanied by a continuous progress towards equality and social justice and the establishment of a social and economic democracy."

All these pronouncements are well-conceived. Their obvious intention is to take all the elements in society towards prosperity and modernization through joint endea-

vour. Co-ordinated social change in all matters—political, economic, social and cultural—is envisioned. Therefore, equality of opportunity has been promised to the young and the old, the strong and the weak, men and women, boys and girls. This is indeed a fine foundation for promoting all-sided change and development. Still, in spite of twenty years of work, planned development has been slow. No doubt, some apparent political advance has taken place, in the sense that every adult citizen has the right to vote as a member of a democracy. Some economic change too is evident. But attitude change, that is change in the psychological make-up of our society, has been extremely slow. This is reflected in the continued disparities and near stagnation in the field of education. Why this is so, is a matter for thoughtful exploration.

Planning Psychological Change

Equality is a modern concept. We have accepted it. But actually, have we planned for the psychological change essential for taking us from tradition to modernity ? If planning for value-reorganisation and attitude-change were our major aims, we would have given, in the plans we have formulated so far, more attention to educating not only the young but the family as a whole because attitudes are built up within the family, in most cases. And instead of concentrating only on children and the traditional system of formal education we would have created a sort of 'open house' educational system, in addition to and interlinked with the formal system, to cover all types of educational needs of all members of a family. The objectives of educational planning would have been stated in terms of the behavioural changes expected in adults and children both in the light of the country's constitution and development plans, instead of directing the educational effort towards the promotion of 'Stages' or 'Types' of education. Of course, this is a difficult concept to grasp and a difficult task to attempt in the traditional set-up of the organisation and administration of education. But it has gradually become apparent that there is no other way in which society as a whole can be helped to adapt to changes and to accelerate the pace of desirable change. Neither equality of access to education for the socially or economically advantaged and disadvantaged nor the progress of even the traditional system of formal education can be satisfactorily attained unless social attitudes are transformed. And since the unit of psychological change in any society is the family, our best efforts have to be directed to changing the perceptions and attitudes of the most tradition-bound persons in the family, namely, the adult women. The mother must be approached first because it is she who sets the tone for the attitudes of children. If she does not realise the socio-economic and political significance of sending her children to school, how can the spread of primary education pick up speed ? If she does not understand the irrationality of tradition and does not know about the rapid technological advances

which *are changing the traditional* roles of women, how will she feel impelled to send her daughters to school ? If she is not moved by the call for national integration, how will she help her children to overcome casteism, communalism and regionalism ? To neglect the education of this main spring of psychological change and, instead, to concentrate on the weakest member of the family—the child, to achieve the objectives of the reorientation of traditional values and attitude change for modernization, would always obstruct educational progress. This is probably a major reason why many of our programmes of social welfare and economic development attain limited success or fail altogether. We open dispensaries or child-care clinics and find that they do not function to their capacity because rural mothers prefer charms, amulets and other irrational means for restoring their children to health. New varieties of protein-rich wheat are produced but women reject it because it is not as yellow as the wheat to which they are accustomed. Nutrition programmes are arrested because women are reluctant to change their ways of cooking or to accept new kinds of foodstuffs. Educational drives for the enrolment of girls fail because girls are still considered by the mother much less important than boys for increasing the status of the family. Whatever we teach the *children in school* about health, sanitation, integration, equality and so on and so forth gets wiped off when the mother treats these things as nonsense and makes out the school to be a reservoir of unpractical ideas.

It would, therefore, be right to say that the problem of equalization of educational opportunities for girls and women or the slow growth of primary education as a whole, is basically a problem of changing the traditional roles of women in family and society. Our tradition has allotted a subordinate status to women and they are required to stay in the background. While the Plans request their participation in national development, society discourages it. *Their innate abilities* to *contribute* to social welfare and economic growth of society have little scope for action. Lack of education prevents them from imbibing the spirit of rationality. Traditionalism evokes their enterprise, thwarting their growth as confident and creative citizens. This position of adult women is the major obstruction in the path of solving our vast problems of health and hygiene, family-planning, child-care, food and nutrition and economic development. It is small wonder that our progress is halting when we have not provided avenues for the utilization of the dormant abilities of nearly half of our adult population and neglected the education of the custodians of our children's future. *Therefore,* if problems of development, and particularly of the development of young boys and girls into enterprising citizens are to be solved, we must educate the family as a whole and concentrate on the *mother as far as possible. This may* prove to be a major step for overcoming the lag between the country's politico-economic and psychological evolution. Since we cannot halt the changes which are taking place all

over the world in order to adjust them to our social and family structures, it is our own structure that must be transformed. The family is the psychological agent of society. It is capable of creating new social names. When it gets educated and moves towards equality, justice and freedom, it sets into motion the forces of social transformation and progress.

Problems of Education arise from Traditionalism

Many problems in education today arise from the low participation rate of girls and women in the process of education. Tradition-bound and illiterate women are helpless to look after children's homework and scholastic progress. Absence of a home-environment conducive to studies has been one of the major causes of wastage and stagnation. Low enrolments of girls in small rural primary schools increases the number of single-teacher schools. Reluctance of the local bodies to appoint women teachers not only curtails the enrolment of girls but results in the bewilderment and maladjustment of young boys who newly enter school and are suddenly faced with a 'father-figure' instead of a 'mother-figure'. There is a traditional notion that if children are to learn anything they must be exposed to lessons for five hours a day under the stern eye of a male teacher. This view has caused a lot of damage to children's studies in the early years of schooling. We disapprove of women teachers because they often bring young babies with them to school. This is considered to be an impediment in teaching and learning. But children are known to take turns to look after the teacher's baby and thus help her to be free to conduct the class in a homely and relaxed atmosphere. There could be many more avenues for greater participation of girls and women in the development of education, but we have not sought them. Girls who have left school at the age of 10-11 to look after their younger brothers and sisters, could continue their education if they could bring these youngsters to a special centre in which a Balwadi as well as continuation classes are run simultaneously. These could perhaps be conducted with the help of girl-monitors. Occupational training could be arranged for girls and women working in agriculture and allied occupations such as poultry-farming, dairy farming and small-scale industries, right on the job or in their spare time. When adult education classes are held, whole families could attend them instead of splitting them up into 'men classes' and 'women classes'. When demonstrations on health education, nutrition or kitchen-gardening are given in school, the women-folk from the children's homes could also be invited to attend. If husband-wife teams of teachers are recruited for schools in the interior of rural areas, many problems of parental education could be tackled. The condensed primary and secondary courses for adult women are an excellent educational innovation which has unfortunately not met with sufficient support from educational administrators and planners. A wide network of such non-traditional

courses, in various modified forms, would most probably have a very beneficial impact on educational development as a whole. Utilization of the services of educated married women as teachers, if necessary on a part-time basis, could give considerable impetus to girls' and women's education. For this purpose, these part-time teachers would be given the same service conditions and benefits as full-time teachers, through some modification of the existing rules and regulations. Reading materials of special interest to school-girls and literate women for introducing them to technology and new social insights are at present extremely scarce. In the rapidly expanding production of new literature in this country such material need to find an important place. Though, in the last analysis, no such distinction can be made as literature for men and literature for women on the basis of innate abilities and interests, everybody's reading interests are generally governed by their environment, occupation and the roles they play in family and society. For a fast acquisition and firm retention of literacy by women and for promoting the reading habit among girls, such literature prepared, preferably by eminent women writers, should prove helpful But what is most crucial to the solution of the problem of equal educational access for all, in the interest of planned change, is the critical attention that planners must pay to the psychological factors involved in development planning and the stress that needs to be laid on the family as the agent for changing traditional attitudes and beliefs.

Summing up

(a) To sum up, therefore, equal access for girls and women to education is not simply a matter of democratic or constitutional obligation, but a prerequisite for social change and national development; (b) the formal educational system can never meet the challenge of a rapidly enlarging spectrum of education and the variety of requirements of the persons to be educated; (c) side by side with the formal educational system, an informal system of the 'open house' type must be provided if the lag in the education of girls and women is to be overcome speedily; (d) the fact of tradition - bound women folk exercising a restraining influence on educational development and social change needs to be taken into account by planners not only of education but of overall development, and education of adult women, particularly in the rural areas, must be given a place of priority; (e) depth studies need to be undertaken in the emotional and learning responses of primary-school entrants, to men and women teachers in order to provide the right kind of policy—guidelines for teachers' recruitment and teacher training; and (f) since such potent mass-media as radio and television would become available in the next 3-4 years to most rural areas, the work of devising the education of rural women and girls through these media needs to be undertaken immediately in order (i) to give them equal access to all types of education, (ii) to help them change their roles in family and society, and (iii) to prepare them and also the men folk in this country

for a further well balanced participation in the development effort called for the national plans. Though no one would say that this is the only way to transform a traditional society into a modern one, a powerful source of transformation does seem to lie in the utilisation of the family as the major agent of change.

सार - संक्षेप

सामाजिक परिवर्तन और बालिकाओं व महिलाओं के लिये शिक्षा का समान अवसर

—चित्रा नायक

हमारी नीतियां, सामाजिक, आर्थिक और राजनीतिक, श्रेष्ठ तथा अत्यधिक प्रगतिवादी हैं, फिर भी परिवर्तन की गति तथा बालिकाओं और महिलाओं की शिक्षा में गति का अभाव क्यों है? स्पष्ट है कि हम अपने संवैधानिक दायित्वों की पूर्ति करने में असफल रहे हैं। समानता एक आधुनिक अवधारणा है जिसे स्वीकार तो किया है पर परम्पराओं और रूढ़ियों के परिवर्तन तथा दृष्टिकोण के निर्माण के लिये क्या किया? व्यवहार तथा दृष्टिकोण निर्माण का कार्य परिवार में होता है, इसलिये समग्र परिवार और उसमें भी प्रौढ़ महिलाओं के शिक्षण की आवश्यकता सर्व प्रथम है। रूढ़ियों और परम्पराओं को आश्रय मिला है। प्रौढ़ महिलाओं के स्तर पर नए परिवर्तन के अंकुर पनपाने हैं तभी परिवर्तन की इच्छित गति संभव हो सकेगी। तथा पीढ़ियां सबल बनेंगी। परिवार परिवर्तन का महत्वपूर्ण माध्यम है।

—अ. दे. मा.

Research in Educational Planning

AN INTER - DISCIPLINARY APPROACH

S. N. Saraf

SECTION I

THE MATRIX OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Educational planning must find its meaningful setting in the total social, political, economic and cultural matrix of a country. It involves an intelligent understanding between economists and educationists, between the practitioners and theoreticians of the various disciplines which enter into it in addition to economics—psychology, sociology, demography, statistics, etc., between the different political and economic parties and groups in the country, in order to ensure some continuity of policy over a reasonable period of time, without which no durable results can be achieved, between the formulators, the implementors, the administrators and evaluators of the programmes. It

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is certainly difficult to achieve such a happy understanding and coordination of effort, but it is important to realize the urgency of such coordination and work for it.

2. Educational planning involves a careful understanding and consideration of national objectives, purposes and values which the Plan has to serve as a whole and of the place of education in the total Plan. It is not a question of being concerned only with a 'man-power' approach or an 'investment' approach or 'social' approach or a 'system analysis' or 'cultural' approach etc. There has to be an ideal mix of various approaches. This process can be achieved by meaningfully *studying the problems of planning* in an inter-disciplinary method.

3. Educational planning should, in principle, cover the whole educational system and relate its development to the economic and social needs and objectives of the nation. An educational planner is interested as much as any average citizen in the content and quality of education and in its usefulness to the individual and society. As planner, however, he has a special concern in making more specific the objectives, policies and priorities of education, and in the practical means of pursuing them. His principal task is to elaborate policy alternatives and formulate clearly their implications, because it is on the basis of these that political leaders *and decision makers* will make their choice.

SECTION II

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING — NEED FOR RESEARCH

4. Educational plans can be formulated either in global terms at a very high level of Government, or they can grow up from the grass roots and be aggregated into a grand design. In either case, it would be necessary to work out the relationships of one level of education to another, both in terms of the economic and social goals of the plan, as well as in terms of appropriate allocations of financial and manpower resources. A properly conceived plan is a sensitively adjusted instrument of social change which works smoothly and avoids shortfalls as much as it avoids excessive and unwanted outflows. The smoothness of the educational plan is hardly, if ever, achieved without considerable forethought, constant watchfulness and intelligent readjustment. This underlines the need for undertaking problematic and operational research to help planners to solve their pressing and most immediate problems.

5. Most of the educational systems are finding themselves overtaken by social transformations and, therefore, steps have to be taken to ensure that they are constantly adapted, through the scientific preparation and planning of the necessary innovations. This is generally recognized in principle, but practical implications have usually not been fully accepted. It implies systematic research into all elements of education : structure, technology, school, society, curricula etc. Educational research should

not, however, deal only with the methodology of teaching, which is no doubt important, but also with questions raised during the preparation of education plans integrated in general development plans, and with the methodology of planning itself and implementation of plans.

6 The whole process of drawing up a plan—collecting data for the purpose of diagnosis, forecasting man-power requirements, choosing priorities, evaluating—belongs up to a certain degree to research; but such specific forms are themselves based on more general research Section VII indicates the need for research on a certain number of themes : typologies of general development and educational development, standard strategies of education, methodologies to estimate the general output of education and the comparative efficiency of various types of techniques of education, application of up-to-date administrative techniques to education, the perfecting of mathematical examples, the calculation of global educational resources and costs, unit costs, etc. It has to be accepted that feed-back is basically a self-correcting mechanism in modern machines. The concept has been used by mathematicians, sociologists, and planners, amongst others, to convey that the information about difficulties encountered and the difference between the target and performance in implementation are conveyed to the decision makers to allow them to make alterations so that the response to a particular situation can be maximum. Adequate information links must connect the tripartite arrangement of preparation, decision and execution. If the communication between any of these three is tenuous, the entire system may respond feebly to external circumstances and hence be weak in carrying out tasks.

SECTION III

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENTS

7. Pilot institutions and experimental classes have long existed for the purpose of trying out given innovations, with reference to such matters as curricula, methods and auxiliary aids. These experiments must be carried out under genuine scientific control and their results evaluated systematically and objectively. But it is also essential that such educational experiments should not be conducted in isolation but be directed towards the needs of educational development and, accordingly, that they should answer precise questions posed by the planning bodies. We have to see the extent to which accurately evaluated experiments in connection with the internal organization of curricula or the choice between traditional and new methods, such as programmed instruction, television etc are necessary with a view to increasing educational output.

SECTION IV

MACRO VERSUS MICRO RESEARCH STUDIES

8. During the last 18 years of educational planning, we have found that in a country as large as ours, the variety of circumstances are extremely large and a single omnibus prescription cannot remedy the various difficulties or ills of education in various parts of the country. This calls for formulating specific plans in terms of smaller units like districts and blocks. This further highlights the need for the study of problems of educational planning, not only on overall global basis, but taking States and even districts, as the areas for study. The need for a district to be taken as the basic unit for the formulation and implementation of educational plans is well-recognised. The Education Commission (1964-66) in their Report has observed thus :

> "As time passes, the district will assume still greater importance. To-day, a district has an average population of about 1.5 million, an enrolment of about 2,00,000 and about 7,000 teachers and a total expenditure of about Rs. 20 million. By 1986, the population of the average district will be about 2.5 million. Its enrolment may rise to about 5,00,000 with a total cadre of about 20,000 teachers and a total educational expenditure of about Rs. 125 million."
>
> (Pages 261-262)

In any scheme of educational research and, especially pertaining to educational planning, local and pressing problems which require urgent consideration, should receive high priority. It may be added that the micro investigations must be conducted on a sufficiently comparable basis to lend themselves to comparative analysis. Also, the districts or any other geographical units must be selected so as to reflect an appropriate diversity of size, level of development, educational system, experience in educational planning, economic and social structure etc.

SECTION V

BASIC AND APPLIED RESEARCH

9. Various categories of research are closely linked to one another. There can be no basic research without the accurate data obtained from statistical surveys and case studies; nor is it possible to collect accurate data or attempt objective evaluation without the correct methodology. These various forms of research must go hand in hand, sustaining one another and gradually, together, becoming more thorough with the result that there is no absolute priority. Obviously at the time of formulation stage of educational plans, priority will have to be given to the collection of statistics to diagnostic surveys and to educational experiments.

10. Diagnostic surveys are essential in preparing the plan and keeping it constantly up-to-date. They are still too often purely statistical in character. They should, in an

many cases as possible, include evaluations, and it would also be useful that they should cover the educational system in its economic, social and cultural context, noting examples of interaction and indicating past or foreseeable instances of resistance to innovation. Case studies differ from diagnostic surveys only in the use which is made of them. They are not, in principle, intended for the preparation of the plan, but represent objective research for more general purposes (comparative studies, basic research, etc.)

11. We have observed that there are several kinds of research. The fundamental research is the disinterested quest for knowledge without regard to its immediate application. Applied research aims at finding answers to problems more immediately relevant to practical operational matters. Then there is body of assessments and judgements made by people of discernment and good sense on the basis of their wide and long experience. All three contribute to the planning process but our main concern has to be with the middle of spectrum, i.e. with applied research. While basic research is important but often the best way to tackle fundamental problems of educational planning is to attack specific practical problems and study them in their real context.

SECTION VI

LIAISON WITH RESEARCH IN EDUCATION AND OTHER FIELDS

12. All solutions to problems of output, which is an essential ingredient of planning, involve questions of structure, content and methods, that is, questions of pedagogy. The weaknesses of educational planning in the past, and its failures, seem to be due essentially to the fact that many 'planners' were only acquainted with the statistical, economic and financial aspects of the situation, and overlooked the possibilities of improvement offered by pedagogical research. It is, therefore, essential that, in future, research in educational planning should cover pedagogical problems. It is equally necessary for the pedagogical experts to orientate their research according to the practical needs of educational development, hence to acquaint themselves with the problems which planning has to face.

13. Drawing up an education plan necessarily entails interdisciplinary work, but in practice it happens too often that the planning experts are especially interested in certain disciplines, economics in particular, and neglect others, in particular, sociology, anthropology and educational theory. There is, therefore, some purpose in repeating that research in this field must make an ever-increasing use of the methods and findings of very diverse disciplines, experts in which, in their turn, should be better informed as to what they can contribute. Most of the projects in the field of educational planning call upon the skills not only of educators, social scientists,

economists and administrators, but, in each of these broader categories, of experts with a narrower specialization, such as educational accountants, educational budget officers, comparative educationists, social anthropologists, psychologists, demog phers, economists with spe knowledge of cost and price analy public finance specialists, econon ricians, man-power economi accountants, management experts

SECTION VII

AREAS OF STUDY AND RESEARCH

14. The Education Commission, in their Report, have suggested a large number of areas which need to be studied urgently. In particular, the Commission has made the following observations :

> "Since an underdeveloped economy cannot aspire to match the levels of per capita educational expenditure of the developed ones, the problems of educational reconstruction in India can be tackled only on the basis of an approach which meets our special situation. A mere imitation of some of the techniques and programmes of education in developed societies will not meet our requirements. The complexity of our problems and the necessity of connecting education with life, particularly productivity, have to be identified and solutions worked out which take care of the specific needs of the country. It is our firm view that while a careful study of major educational developments in other countries is essential to enable us to draw upon their experiences, there is no substitute for original, hard and serious thinking involved in a sustained and serious effort to make our meagre resources go the longest way possible."
>
> "This implies emphasis on search in all sectors of educati Our general proposals for development of educational search have been discussed e where. Here, we would highlight the need to cond research in the problems of nomics and financing of edu tion which are only just receiv the attention of economists educationists in our count Among other things, there urgent need to examine co nually the relationship betw cost and quality and to devel programmes which would obt the highest possible quality fo given level of input (or minim inputs for a given level quality.)"

(Page 4

In addition to the important a of Economics and Financing Education, suggested by the Edu tion Commission for research, th are a few more fields directly re vant to educational planners, whi need study and investigations. The have been mentioned in para 13.

15. In the field of education planning, or for that matter in a other field of planning, two impo tant aspects are the formulation plans and implementation of plan We have, therefore, to identify t

studies which can be helpful in (a) the formulation of educational plans, (b) the evaluation of educational plans and (c) both formulation and evaluation of educational plans. It is not, however, possible to indicate any watertight compartment between these three types of studies. The broad division suggested is only for convenience and identification. Some of the important problems which need study (listed in para 1), *with an inter-disciplinary approach*, are indicated under the following four broad heads :

(a) Economics and Financing of Education
(b) Educational Planning Models
(c) Implementation and Administration of Education programmes
(d) Educational Practices.

The classification is somewhat arbitrary, since many of the projects cut across two or more divisions.

In certain cases, brief explanatory notes indicate the scope of the study. In other cases, in view of the unambiguity of the themes, no explanations have been offered. Detailed outlines in respect of each study, about the scope, design and structure, will have to be worked out by research workers.

16. Some of these studies can be taken up at the national level, while others would be meaningful if these are taken up at the State levels. There are, however, certain studies which can be relevant if these are confined to districts and specific institutions It may be emphasised that only those research topics have been considered, which have an immediate bearing on educational planning, which means in practice, largely, topics that require an inter-disciplinary approach and cut across several disciplines. Most of the research projects outlined below are so defined as to lend themselves to a more or less complete investigation by teams, or even by individuals, according to the degree of research support at their disposal.

(a) Economics and Financing of Education

1. A study of the extent of educated unemployment with particular reference to the unemployed persons with degree or post-graduate qualifications including engineering personnel needs to be taken up in various States in order to find out the reasons thereof and the impact of educational development on this problem.

2. Role of education in socio-economic development of a small compact area :

An evaluative study of the impact which education has made in socio-economic development of a small compact area preferably a Tehsil since independence may be taken up in order to find out how and to what extent has education contributed to economic development and social growth in the area.

3. Education and Changes in occupational pattern :

It may be useful to take up studies of five or six districts, both industrial and rural, to survey the changes in occupational pattern and their impact on changes in educational courses. The objective would be to find out whether the educational system has responded to changes in occupational pattern and also the extent to which educational system

has been responsible for any changes in the occupational pattern.

4. A study of the influence of examinations and other selection procedures on the student flows at all levels

5. A study of the financing of education :

In order to assess the present trends and future prospects and also to suggest possible new sources of educational revenue, such a study would be useful.

6. Studies in optimum size of school and school buildings—exercises for different geographical and social regions for working out the size of a school and of the maximum possible enrolment in it, leading to the most economical use of the building material, specialist teacher and other scarce resources.

7. Study in optimum utilisation of fully trained professional manpower in education :

This study would examine the work load of teachers, experimental studies in the use of auxiliaries, lay leaders, team teaching etc. for minimising teacher cost and maximum educational output.

8. Utilisation of educational facilities :

A study to work out standard norms for the creation of educational facilities at various levels and the extent to which they have been provided and whether they are being utilised fully or not would be useful.

9. A study of the development of cost analysis techniques in education and the evaluation of practical guidelines for improving productivity in terms of quality, quantity and the suitability of the educational product to the national development needs.

10. A study of the educational expenditures and the extent to which there have been shortfalls; shift in priorities in the course of the implementation of programmes, reasons thereof.

11. Application of performance budgetting and performance analyses to educational programmes.

12. A study of the adequate utilization of graduates coming out of different institutions.

13. Construction of methods or tests to assess the performance of an educational system as a whole.

14. Measuring Efficiency of the School System.

15. A study of the extent and form of public participation (local support) available for educational development programmes.

(b) Educational Planning Models

1. Alternative models of educational growth in relation to overall social and economic growth :

This study would involve the projection of the overall economic growth and on the basis of various relationships construction of an educational model. State-wise studies, on the lines of the Unesco Document : "An Asian Model of Educational Development"–Perspectives for 1965-68—would be useful and highlight important problems involved in effecting changes in educational system.

2. A study of the demand for different types, levels and standards of education by economic and social status groups :

Factors influencing demand would include social, cultural,

economic, political and religious factors and also factors like fees charged and the cost of education. The impact on education of social, geographical and occupational mobility and its influence on the demand for education should also form part of the study.

3. A study of the scale of preferences of parents and students for different levels, types and quality of education as compared to other services :

This study could be conducted by the use of (a) general analysis of mass media of communication, (b) analysis of institutional records and (c) survey of preferences through a study of objects and non-services and through participation and observations.

4. An analysis of knowledge, skills and attitudes required for different sectors of the economy for national development from time to time, as well as a study of the occupational and social requirements of secondary and technical school leavers with a view to ensuring a closer relationship between education and community needs at different levels :

This study would include an examination of the educational content and training methods through a survey of manpower and employees.

5. A sociological study of the aspirations of the students and parents to determine the factors that may have to be adjusted to ensure a more healthy balance between demand and need.

6. A comparative study of the changing balance between the manpower requirements pyramid, the educational pyramid, and the salary structure in a developing country.

7. The designing of the educational structure in order to ensure maximum flexibility and preventing an imbalance between the popular demand for education and the needs of national development.

8. The socio-cultural goals of the educational plan :

A study of this type would be helpful in laying down objectives of educational development plans and formulation of precise schemes accordingly. It would be useful to find more precise ways of measuring these goals and of assessing the extent to which education helps to attain them.

9 Methods of Man-power Projections : a critical evaluation.

This study should cover a detailed and critical evaluation of a number of cases with a view to ascertaining how the method worked, where and why it succeeded, and where and why it failed.

(c) Implementation and Administration of Education

1. A study of the indicators of educational development in different regions and States :

Economic, social and educational indicators of growth will have to be identified.

2. A study of the Grant-in-aid rules.

3. A survey of the evaluative criteria for supervision of educational institutions, a critical evaluation and programme for development

4. A comparative study of the existing State Education Acts :

A study of educational legislation, including democratic decentralisation of education and their impact on educational planning and implementation would be useful.

5. A study of various processes involved in formulating schemes relating to educational development:

This problem requires to be studied in respect of continuing and new schemes separately with a view to finding out the stages involved in putting a scheme on the ground. This will take the form of case studies of specific schemes, one or two in each State, from the stage of conception to that of implementation.

6. Agencies involved in implementing educational programmes :

A study could be undertaken of the departments/agencies concerned with the implementation of educational development programmes and identifying the areas where there is possible overlap in the functions and implementation of programmes of identical nature being initiated by different departments like Social Welfare, Community Development, Labour, Industries, Harijan Welfare etc.

7. Status study of actual practices at the decision making levels regarding the construction and location of school buildings.

8. A survey of the job analysis of District Education Officers and proposals for reorganisation.

9. Relationship and channels of communication between Education Department on the one hand, and Planning Department, Finance Department and General Administration Department on the other.

10. Procedure for assessing performances of teachers and officers in the Education Department.

11. Pattern, composition and functions of planning and statistical units at the State and District levels.

12. Education among under-privileged Sections :

In order to identify the factors which hinder or promote the advancement of education among the under-privileged sections of the country, it would be useful to study the impact of the general expansion of educational facilities on the enrolment of children belonging to these sections. It may also be necessary to ascertain how far facilities such as supply of free school meals etc. have contributed to the improvement in the enrolment of children in these classes. An attempt should be made to study the distribution of educational benefits from the point of view of determining the areas and sections of population where deficiencies need to be recovered.

13. Regional Disparities in the field of education :

During the last 1[illegible] years of planning, one important factor which has emerged is that the imbalances in the field of education between different States and also between different districts within States has accentuated. Depth studies of the reason thereof would be extremely helpful.

14. A status study of the role of local bodies in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of educational development programmes.

15. Criteria for the establishing, upgrading and downgrading of [illegible] schools colleges.

16. The impact of legislatures and legislators on educational policy-making in day-to-day educational administration.

17. A survey of present practices in recruitment, appointment and training of educational personnel at various levels.

18. Composition and functions of Board of Secondary Education, their relationship with the State Education Departments, State Universities and other Departments.

19. Impact of foreign aid including technical assistance on educational development.

(d) **Educational Practices**

1. Educational innovations and practices :

A study of various educational innovations and practices which have contributed to the development of education and their evaluation is necessary. An analysis of their successes or failures, the techniques developed etc. has to be made so that the results of these studies could be made available to other States for adoption or consideration.

2. A comparative study of experiments in institutional planning.

3. Modernization of the rural sector and its implications for educational planning.

4. Evaluative studies of correspondence, part-time and inservice education programmes based on assessment of costs and effectiveness of different measures.

5. Studies in the relative effectiveness of different combinations of supervisory staff (specialists) and line administration functions as well as personnel in educational administration.

6. Case studies of practices which have been successful in reducing wastage arising from non-promotion and early schooling leaving.

7. An experimental study in practices designed to reduce drop-outs.

8. A comparative study of educational systems in various countries·

It would be desirable to have a comparative study of the relations between the Central Government and the federal units in various countries in regard to evolution of national educational policies, administration and implementation of programmes, financial procedures including federal aid, educational services, coordination and maintenance of standards, inter-regional and international collaboration, manpower planning, educational planning etc. with reference to the position in India and possible lessons for our country.

SECTION VIII

RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING — PRIORITIES

17. The priorities in educational research at the national level, from the point of view of the educational planner or administrator, are always different from similar priorities at lower levels or from the point of view of practising teachers. It would be useful, however, to establish effective bridges of communication between the researchers and the educational planners and administrators in working out priorities so that studies which are important from planning point of view get

earnest consideration. The Education Commission realised the need for it and made the following recommendation :

> "It is necessary to bring together officers of the Education Departments working in the field with the research workers in training colleges and the universities. For instance, the schools of education which we have recommended, should make it a point to hold annual conferences of selected district education officers, headmasters of schools at all levels and teacher educators. As far as possible, these should be of inter-State character. In these conferences, a two-way process will take place. The field officers of the Education Department can place before the staff of the school of education, the practical difficulties which they come across and to which they can find no solution. On their part, the teachers in the school of education can acquaint the field officers of the Department with the latest findings of research and can take up their problems for future study and investigations. This fruitful combination of field-work with research will have to be greatly emphasized in future, if the innumerable problems that face us in educational development have to be solved quickly and satisfactorily." (Page 324)

We would like to add that this is perhaps more relevant now than ever. So far educational research and educational planning have not been inter-related and the result is that educational research is usually unreal, abstract and barren. The universities and research institutions have to be organically related to problems of educational planning and educational administration and the research workers have to get acquainted with the problems which are faced by administrators and planners. It is through these contacts and dialogues between the researchers and the field workers that priorities of educational research in the field of planning will emerge.

18. The number of studies and investigations listed in Section VII could easily have been doubled or trebled without deviating from the main criterion which was to consider only projects or direct relevance to the needs of the educational planner. Priorities imply choices and the choices were often as difficult to make as in educational planning itself. It is, however, suggested that planners and administrators who are working in the field need to be consulted about priorities.

SECTION IX

ROLE OF VARIOUS AGENCIES IN PROMOTING RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

19 The Education Commission in their Report, while defining the role of Government of India in the field of providing leadership and financial support, have observed :

> "We recommend that the Centre should play an important role in the development of educational

research. It should make the good work done in one area of the country known to the other areas through the coordinating and clearing house functions which cross-fertilise educational thinking, through periodical reviews and through conducting, or offering assistance to conduct, pilot or experimental projects."

(Page 452)

This important recommendation needs no further elaboration. Necessary provisions are now available in an increasing measure, with the U.G.C. and the Central Ministry of Education for promoting educational research and it is necessary to enunciate a definite National Policy on Educational Research in the Fourth Plan.

20. Research is undoubtedly based on the intellectual independence of the individual research worker, but a certain minimum of coordination and discipline is essential if there is to be a true "community of research". Each institution and each individual research worker will need to split its or his activities into two parts, one independent and one cooperative One of the basic principles of the division of tasks is that each should give priority to what is easiest for him to do ·

(i) national bodies for educational planning are not often well-placed to undertake basic research. On the other hand, they must promote and organise applied research on the practical questions raised in the preparation of their plans. They can also render extremely useful service in assembling and distributing rapidly, as complete, accurate and comparable data as possible concerning national education and planning;

(ii) in liaison with the planning bodies, universities, research institutions and the teacher-training colleges can pursue applied research contributing to the preparation or evaluation of the national plan;

(iii) universities possessing major facilities can devote themselves to basic and inter-disciplinary research. These large universities could, for that matter, co-operate with other research organisations or else with individual research workers.

(iv) the regional or national agencies could concern themselves with basic research, but their real function should above all be to promote and organize research, to arrange for experts to meet at regular intervals, to propose divisions of tasks, to compile and summarize, and to organise communications and exchanges.

21. There is no denying the fact that one of the reasons for the slow progress of educational research is the inadequacy of financial support. If educational research is to be more than a pious hope and is to become a reality it must have its own budget. One difficulty, however, seems that the exact contribution of research on educational development is not immediately apparent either in the basic research in the disciplines concerned or in experimental projects, in extension or in generalization. It would, therefore, be advisable for the State and Central budgets to indicate clearly not only what sums are earmarked for applied research, which can be fairly easily

defined, but also the sums assigned to research work on educational development in the budgets of various projects of basic research (economics, sociology, psychology etc.), in the budgets of training colleges, pilot institutions, etc. In other words, it would be advisable to envisage a *programmed research budget* which, once officially adopted, would, more than any other means, make for easier co-ordination of the various aspects and levels of research tasks. To ensure the necessary continuity, this *programmed research budget* should be included in the overall national educational plan. The administrators have also to consider the question of removing bottlenecks and technicalities involved in the free flow and proper utilisation of outlays provided for educational research by various agencies.

सार - संक्षेप

शैक्षिक आयोजन में अनुसन्धान

[अंतर्विषयी उपागम]

– एस. एन. सराफ

शैक्षिक आयोजन के ताने-बाने में सामाजिक, राजनीतिक, आर्थिक, सांस्कृतिक सभी दृष्टिकोणों का समावेश होना चाहिये। अर्थशास्त्री और शिक्षाशास्त्रियों के साथ-साथ विभिन्न विषयों – मनोविज्ञान, समाजशास्त्र, जनांकिकी तथा सांख्यिकी इत्यादि से सम्बंधित व्यवहार तथा सिद्धान्त पक्ष के ज्ञाताओं का शैक्षिक आयोजन के विभिन्न ताल-मेल आवश्यक हैं और ऐसा ही ताल-मेल देश के विभिन्न राजनीतिक, आर्थिक तथा अन्य दलों में चाहिये, अन्यथा दूरगामी परिणाम संभव न हो सकेंगे। निस्संदेह ऐसा सुखद ताल-मेल तथा समायोजन कठिन है, फिर भी उसके महत्व और आवश्यकता का भान होना ही चाहिये।

– अ. दे. श.

Educational Administration

शिक्षा प्रशासन

Educational Administration and Nai Talim

K. S. Acharlu

community, giving each group opportunities to strive to its best. The programme of school improvement consists of preparation of institutional plans spread over a given period consisting of improvement of physical facilities, motivating human agencies in a coordinated manner for the improvement of education, attacking problems like wastage and stagnation, improvement of teaching methods, enrichment of curricula, increasing the professional competence of the teachers and cooperation with the local community for improving facilities.

The Commission rightly stresses the encouragement of initiative, creativity and experimentation on the part of teachers and institutions. A decentralized approach is recommended and the institutions are allowed *freedom of experimentation* to go ahead at their own pace and try out new ideas. Each institution has to be regarded as a unit in itself having an individuality of its own and should be helped to grow in its own individual manner. The teachers will thus participate in the joy of creation and be motivated to more intense efforts at qualitative improvement.

Supervision and inspection are the most important functions of State administration. They form the "backbone of educational improvement". An important recommendation is the separation of administrative and supervisory functions. In both these fields the last word will be that of the DEO, whose powers, salary and status will be upgraded. The DEO is charged with leadership functions in relation to the District as the Director is in relation to the State. A main characteristic of the new approach to supervision will be its flexibility in the treatment of different schools.

This brief summary of the opinions and recommendations of the K.E.C. is enough to indicate the general lines of approach taken by that expert body in the field of Educational Administration and Supervision.

The question naturally arises; what are the objectives of Educational Administration? It should be remembered that administration is not an end in itself. It is means to the realisation of an end, and the end is the provision of good education. Everything therefore depends on what we mean by "good education". According to the Commission the following are the essentials of *good education :*

1. Education is a powerful instrument of social, economic and political change and must be related to long-term national aspirations. (2) National Welfare, reconstruction of society and prosperity depend on the proper education of the people. (3) Education should help achieve national and social integration. (4) Education should be rooted *in the traditions of the people* and educated persons should not be alienated from their own culture. (5) Education should strengthen democracy as a way of life and should be related to life in content, purpose and organisation. (6) Education should be related to productivity and must contribute to the increase of national income. Work-experience must be an integral part of education and pupils

must participate in productive work. Education for agriculture and self-sufficiency in food must be the concern of the educational system. (7) Education should give important place to national service and for ethical and spiritual values (8) The mother-tongue must be the medium of instruction at all stages. (9) The school curriculum should be intimately related with the life of the community, and the natural and social environment of the region. (10) Evaluation must be a continuous process.

A careful study of the objectives listed above will show that what goes on in the name of education today is hardly worth the name of education. The present educational system has to be remodelled root and branch by a revolution in educational thinking before any reorientation in administration is effected. Otherwise it would be a case of putting the cart before the horse. Planning of effective means for the pursuit of wrong ends will certainly not produce desirable results. Four years have gone by since the Commission presented their report, and practically nothing of a revolutionary nature has been effected in formulating objectives or programmes of education, while a complicated administrative structure has been proposed to be set up at the Central and the State level

It would be well to draw the reader's attention to certain significant expressions employed by the K.E.C. in their new policy of administration — encouragement of initiative, creativity, experimentation, decentr[illegible] approach, freedo[illegible] [illegible]viduality, participation in the joy of creation, good education, qualitative improvement. These concepts can have meaning only in a system of education entirely different from what prevails today.

Educational Administration has a philosophy of its own. It draws relevant constructs from the social and behavioural sciences. School administrators should possess a better understanding of human behaviour and development so that the human resources in a school district can achieve a more constructive working relationship. The ASCD Year Book for 1962, "Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming; A New Focus for Education", says "An administrator should be chosen in part for his ability to release creativity in the adults who work with him, and for the ability to utilize the wisdom of others, and do everything possible to act upon the best pooled judgement of his staff He takes care not to allow the daily pressures to distract him from his goal, putting productive staff relationships first among the conditions necessary for a good school system "

A good administrator realizes that what matters is the quality of trust and of faith which penetrates the administrator-staff relations. An effective leader must really trust, not manipulate people or decisions. Mutual respect for dignity and integrity are a function of trust. An educational administrator should be one who recognizes and knows where the human need lies and can generate the determination to cut through all the obstacles that stand in the way. Healthy administration

should help release another person's creativity and encourage the employment of another's wisdom.

But the picture of educational administration we behold today is quite different. Between the administrator and his employees lies a barrier.

The Administrators invariably follow rules declaring 'Thus it shall be'. Their Bible is the code of administration, supported by departmental regulations and memoranda. In mechanically maintaining the rule of the law they overlook the truth that the teacher is a human individual. The teacher is viewed as an 'object' governed by rules. This is called 'objectivity' in administration implying that the man opposite is an 'object', a thing, while all the while there stands a human being in a human environment. Education deals with the 'subjective' view. It treats the person opposite as a human being, as a person and tries to understand the humanness in him, why he acted as he did, how he looked at the circumstances in which he was placed, how he can fulfil his purposes better and, so on. Buber calls the former an I—it relationship and the latter an I—thou relationship. If the administrator's business is simply to adhere to rules and scrupulously follow them, why not place the system in the hands of a computer, asks an educationist. Merely to go by the book is to give up one's claim to be an individual If we follow the rule-book we get a society of administrators who are morally unhelpful. The anti-human effects of a rule-dominated administration are found in its neglect of promoting a truly human community.

There is a tendency in the social structure of administration to silence those who dissent. A healthy human community can be developed only by creating an atmosphere where those who wish to dissent can do so without fear of recrimination. If you close your ranks against critics then you close your mind. Education is freedom and growth.

Radical changes in education can never be effected through administrators because they aim, if at all, at reform and not at revolution in thinking. The fashion among administrators today is to produce enumerated plans which, according to the Educational Supplement (July 1, 1966), is good psychology. "You produce an enumerated programme and you are already halfway home. People love to be planned by numbers. It is as if the very process of numbering gives substance to the proposals. A six-point schedule must be dynamic. It does not matter if the points are pointless."

The USA is our model for much of the pattern of administration we have been following today. It is well-known that in the US the institution of Educational Administration drew its inspiration largely from the gospel of efficiency in industry and big business. In spite of this doctrine provoking opposition from intellectuals who proposed new lines of thinking based on a new approach to human relations, laying stress on attention to processes of communication and decision-making, the nasty word "power" entered into the vocabulary of educational administration.

Authority is often confused with power Authority denotes only a

particular kind of relationship. But since it demands obedience it is mistaken for power. The two are however closely associated though one cannot be identified with the other. Power has always the tendency to perpetuate itself. The persons who face power feel helpless, and the more helpless they feel, the more is the oppression. The strategy of the powerful is to rely upon the human weaknesses and collaboration of those on whom they hold sway. Power generally moves in an environment of intellectual dishonesty, prejudice and pretension. "I am convinced", said Stendahl, "that as soon as he opens his mouth every man in power begins to lie." To say so may be considered too strong but experience shows that almost every man in power intends to perpetuate himself and thus has recourse to pretensions and unhealthy practices.

It is a well-known fact of experience that when a group or an individual is subordinated to authoritarian power structure fear begins to operate in human relations. "Fear is a very bad advisor Its companion is hate, and hate is the father and mother of cruelty and intolerance." (Aneurin Bevan - In Place of Fear). Owing to the compulsions of the historical process we have given enormous powers to external authority which holds supreme sway in every field of educational activity. Once bureaucracy enjoys authority and power, it is impossible to take it away or show that it is harmful for the development of a healthy community.

One of the chief aims of Education is to lay the foundation for decent democracy. But a centralized structure in administration is dangerous to democracy. In a centralized system, "authority is top-down. Information is gathered from below in the field, is processed to be used by those above. Decisions are made in headquarters and policy, Schedules and standard procedures are transmitted downwards by chain of command. This system was designed for disciplining armies, for bureaucratic record-keeping, for tax-collection etc., but it has now pervaded every field." (Paul Goodman).

Decentralisation is the only method to save democracy. Its principle is that people are engaged in the functions they perform. Authority is delegated from the top to lower levels so that there are many centres of decision and policy-making. Discussions are carried on in face to face contacts between people, and each person is in the know of the whole operation. Everyone works at his own rate according to his own capacities. Decentralisation is a technique of coordination and mutual assistance, of integration and cohesiveness.

Nai Talim believes in decentralisation of authority and of functions. If education is to be a subtle awareness of the environment and an integration of the physical, social, economic and cultural aspects of life to provide a healthy environment for the young to grow in freedom and strength, then decentralisation is the only answer. One of the chief reasons why Nai Talim failed to win the sympathy of the administrators is that it sapped the

foundations of rigid administration. Nitya Nai Talim cannnot function in an atmosphere of controlled regulation.

But it must be understood that decentralisation as such does not produce good education. It is only a promise, not performance. It works meaningfully only when a school or a region has a consciousness of its responsibilities and functions as an initiating and decision-making community. The argument against decentralisation is that it puts too much trust in human nature. But the concept of trust has neither too much nor too little in it. It is simply a moral proposition. The only way to train people in responsibility is to trust and give them responsibility. Education is a matter of growth and freedom, and naturally involves taking enormous risks.

The purpose of education is not the pursuit or promotion of any belief or ideology. It should not aim at implanting any preconceptions imposing any dogmas or creeds, political, economic, social or religious. The pupil should not be conditioned to a way of life. His should be an open way, a continuous adventure along an ever-new, unchartered, untrodden path. The present system of education and administration does not educate pupils for an open mind. It is creating closed, bored minds. It may be said that an educational system without rigid administration results in "creative disorder". But this disorder is any day preferable to "dead sameness", for the former situation at least holds out a promise and a hope. The only life worth living is a life of daring.

Gandhiji after long experience and experimentation with education offered the country an outline of an educational system which, according to the University Commission, bids fair to be a significant contribution to world educational thinking. If our administrative machinery had only implemented the educational values and programmes of Nai Talim with faith and zeal the country would by now have achieved most of the educational objectives presented by the KEC, and in addition developed sufficient strength in indigenous thinking. But alas, the educational bureaucrats buried Nai Talim in the debris of educational junk.

Gandhiji's conception of swavalamban had the objective of releasing the schools from the shackles of state administration. As long back as April 1915 Gandhiji pleaded for an education which promotes self-reliance and self-support, being convinced that under swaraj education should make pupils self-supporting from their youth. He felt certain that unless the principle of self-support was brought to the fore, there was not even the remotest possibility of carrying a minimum of education to the doors of the millions in the country. In his dream of Gram Swaraj Gandhiji envisaged the villages to be real republics independent in almost everything, including education of the children, youth and adults. These ideas are today fully developed by Vinobaji in his concept of gramadan.

According to Vinobaji there is nothing more gravely dangerous

than handing over the department of education to the State. Education should be in the hands of wise men. Today, says he, every small item of education is being decreed by the State so that the students are being educated in a restricted and stifling atmosphere. The period of studentship is one which should be devoted to freedom and acquisition of knowledge. The educational policy, curriculum, text-books and even vacations are dictated and authoritatively controlled by the State. The control of text-books means that the State intends to restrain the ideas entering into the minds of students. If the Govt happens to be socialist then in all State schools the socialist doctrines will be presented. If the govt is Fascist, Fascism will be preached and enforced. Text-books prepared and prescribed by the State always present the point of view of the State. Thus the students are not expected to think for themselves what is good and what is bad but to recite Parrot-fashion what is presented by departmental experts, and at the end of the year to disgorge all the stuff to merit distinction. This is a subtle method of indoctrination of children.

The cultural tradition of our country lays down that the leadership of the nation shall lie in the hands of teachers The educational institutions of old were under the guidance and direction of men of wisdom who led dedicated lives. The prince as well as the pauper were educated together in the asrams of old. The authority of the State in matters of curriculum, policy and text-books was something unheard of in ancient tradition. All this was the responsibility of the acharya.

Today the state departments have a stranglehold on the educational system because of the conduct of public examinations. Vinobaji asks why service under govt. should be tagged on to graduation and the possession of certificates. The govt. could conduct different kinds of tests and examinations for its different departmental needs and those who desire to enter service should be able to take them. All this paraphernalia of public examinations conducted by the State administration with its intricate machinery will then become unnecessary. The world would also be saved from the unbelievable sins and crimes committed in the name of public examinations. The educational atmosphere will certainly be purified by the removal of much smog.

A State system casts education in a fixed mould, and trains children for conformity. In a life-centred educational system the children obtain new and fresh experiences every day and will be able to develop the vitality to direct themselves intelligently in the light of those experiences. Stuffing the minds of children with ready-made ideas is not education. The children should be helped in the art of thinking for themselves and should not be trained to become fawning Yes men. They should be trained to follow truth without plodding over a beaten track. This is the reason why Vinobaji is not tired of emphasizing that education should be carried on in an environment of freedom, and should be independent of State

control, even as the department of justice is.

Gandhi and Vinoba are not the only prophets of freedom in education. Long ago, John Stuart Mill in his essay on "liberty" deprecated the idea that the education of the people should lie in the State's hands. He felt convinced that a general State education is a mere contrivance for moulding people to be exactly like one another and that it establishes a despotism over the mind. Enlightened educationalist opinion in the west today also supports the view that education must free itself of the State.

It must be possible to create a school as a living community, an exciting social adventure, without conforming to the administrative needs of public examinations and standard patterns of performance. Children can be taught crucial values of equality, integration, non-exploitation, love and world brotherhood and can be helped to develop a desire to find solutions to the problems of poverty, ill-health, malnutrition, unemployment, injustice, communal hatred etc. If this is education why not encourage it to happen.

सार-संक्षेप

शिक्षा-प्रशासन और नई तालीम

—के. एस. अचलू

कोठारी कमीशन ने शाला उन्नयन एवं शिक्षा मे गुणात्मक सुधार के लिये प्रशासनिक एवं परिवीक्षणात्मक कार्यों को अलग-अलग कर प्रशासन के विकेन्द्रीकरण पर बल दिया है। शिक्षा के लक्ष्यो की पूर्ति मे आज वर्तमान प्रशासन ही बाधक है जो मानवीय तत्त्वों की उपेक्षा कर नियमावलियो को महत्व देकर भय, घृणा, असहिष्णुता आदि को जन्म देता है। गांधीजी और विनोबा भावे के अनुसार शिक्षा को राज्य का विषय बनाना ही खतरनाक है क्योंकि वे बच्चो में अपने सिद्धान्तों का प्रसार करेंगे। जान स्टुआर्ट के अनुसार शिक्षा न्यायपालिकाओं की भांति स्वतन्त्र विषय होना चाहिए। पब्लिक परीक्षायें बन्द करदी जावें। व्यावसायिक कौशल के परीक्षण हों। समानता, पूर्णता, प्रेम, विश्वबन्धुत्व आदि मूल्यों का निर्माण तथा बेकारी, निर्धनता, शोषण, अन्याय आदि का उन्मूलन वही नई तालीम कर सकती है जो राज्यांकुश से स्वतन्त्र हो।

—नि. सि. श.

Loyalty to Profession: A Pedestal for Real Education

S. D. Kapoor

IN the days of shifting loyalties and weak moral scaffolding it looks anachronistic to talk of loyalty to profession. The politicians can cross the floor any number of times without any qualm of conscience, a Government servant can fleece the Government without the slightest compunction as though it were his birthright; a business man would do anything to see that his monopolistic rights are not taken away from him; a shopkeeper would not hesitate in selling adulterated stuff whether it causes stomach disorder or ulcer. Such examples can be multiplied in our country. One does not know whether such things are inherent in a developing economy, but one usually ignores such aberration in human behaviour. Nonetheless it is a fact that without some sort of loyalty to profession such things will proliferate. This is more true in the case of teaching profession because without an allegiance to knowledge as an ultimate end the teaching profession will remain an empty shell.

The teaching profession is different from other professions in a number of ways, but the most

perceptible and most marked difference is in the effect that this profession has on society as a whole. The alumni reach out to the society at large and spread the knowledge conveyed to them by their teachers. Besides earning his livelihood, which is common to all professions, a teacher reshapes the students, equips them to face the challenges of life and gives them a frame of mind that can stand up to all problems. If a teacher fails to give this type of training to his students, then he fails in his duty as a teacher. There are other aspects of his loyalty to profession; and that is to knowledge the accumulation and dissemination of knowledge. The role of a teacher does not end in the College or the University where he happens to be posted; he continues to inspire his students and others through his writing–even after they have left the portals of the University.

One might argue that the role of a moral tutor for a teacher is no longer possible in the changed climate that prevails in the Universities and Colleges. The number of students multiplies every three years and there is complete democratisation of education. Besides, there are forces–scientific and technological–that are forcing the Universities and Colleges to technologise the institutions. All these arguments conceded. But does it overrule the fact that the teacher should be loyal to the Institution of learning and to his profession. It is a commonplace to say that the portals of the Universities have been thrown open to students who come from bookless home. But the fact is that the Universities and Colleges have not been able to adjust themselves to the changed situation. One or two good institutions are now making experiments by grading the students and thereby dividing them into groups according to their intelligence. But all such innovations require intellectual alertness on the part of teachers to keep themselves abreast of the latest researches made in the field. If teachers resign themselves to the new situation, or take the attitude of indifference which most teachers seem to have taken, by evolving new methods, then in a few years' time the problem will become difficult to control and will then call for some drastic changes. In the meantime an incalculable harm will have been caused to the students who pass out during this period. The dithering approach to the language problem in the country has contributed a great deal to the lowering of standards in Universities and Colleges.

Unfortunately, the teachers of today have not stood up to the challenge (I am talking of those teachers who are not aware of the differentiated role and their duty toward the acquisition of knowledge) and have become as much part of the social set-up that there does not appear to be any difference between them and, say, business executives. They have the same approach to their profession and, what is worse, have the same approach to life. I say that the role of teachers is different on the assumption that they play a vital role in a society and the future of that society will depend largely on

their playing out that role-if not according to the best tradition of the teacher (as moral tutor) at least according to the best tradition of scholarship. The fact that the teacher is a human being and is also influenced by the forces operating in that society devolves on him a greater responsibility. He is in a better position to point out the contradictions, disparities and hypocrisies in public life to his students and show how these can be curbed and removed, so that when the students go out in public they find themselves properly equipped to fight the unhealthy forces that are present in society. This can be done only when the teacher is aware of the role that he has to play as an intellectual leader and not as part of a commercial set-up where everything is judged in terms of money.

Now what I feel is that this important link – a kind of intellectual rapport – between the students and the teachers has been snapped, and its place is being taken by forces that are unacademic. In other words, loyalty to profession and allegiance to learning have been replaced by the crude forces of materialism The teacher teaches because he is paid for it, and the students treat him like a person belonging to any other profession and do not feel obliged to show any reverence to them because their teacher has ceased to be their *guru* or intellectual leader. The teacher contributes to the same order that exists outside of the University. Instead of showing to the students how they should combat the forces of communalism, chauvinism and materialism, they help them contribute to the same system. The University, thus, does not remain a "nucleus of a greater public, the spiritual community the country needs as its mind and conscience." Under such circumstances it is difficult to predict whether there will be any real University in our country which will not only be "a centre of consciousness and human responsibility for the civilized world" but will also be "a creative centre of civilization." (F.R.Leavis)

Academies in the past were considered the seats of learning and the common man looked up to them to shed light on the hidden and baffling problems facing the society. The Universities of today no longer indulge in the task of probing into the hidden, and sometimes dangerous, forces that might erupt into chaos and confusion in the society. The area of darkness is gradually enveloping the Universities, and if the teachers fail to extend the area of light and reach out to the darkness outside, the academies will be reduced to the level of any industry. Then there will be no difference between the teaching profession and other professions. The lack of human touch will exist in teachers as long as they have no loyalty to the ideals of their profession and allegiance to absolute knowledge.

सार-संक्षेप

व्यवसाय के प्रति निष्ठा : सही शिक्षा का प्रमुख आधार

—एस. डी. कपूर

जैसे अन्य व्यवसायों के व्यक्ति अपने-अपने व्यवसाय में स्वार्थ सिद्धि एवं अर्थ प्राप्ति

हेतु अनुचित कार्यों का सहारा लेते हैं उसी प्रकार यदि शिक्षा के क्षेत्र मे भी अर्थ प्राप्ति ही लक्ष्य रह जाता है तो यह व्यवसाय भी अन्य व्यवसायों की तरह ही हो जाता है। शिक्षा का प्रभाव समस्त समाज पर स्पष्ट है। सबके समान अध्यापक भी जीविकोपार्जन करते हैं लेकिन इसके अतिरिक्त वे छात्रों का जीवन निर्माण करते है, सब प्रकार की समस्याओ को झेलने हेतु उनके मस्तिष्क का विकास करते हैं व उन्हे भावी जीवन की चुनौतियो का मुकाबला करने के लिये तैयार करते हैं अन्यथा वे कर्त्तव्यच्युत होते हैं। अत. उनका क्षेत्र विश्वविद्यालयो एवं महाविद्यालयों तक ही सीमित नही है। वे अपने विचारों द्वारा इसके बाहर के छात्रो व अन्य व्यक्तियों को भी प्रेरणा देते है।

यह सत्य है कि बढती छात्रसख्या, परिवर्तित वातावरण, विज्ञान एव टैक्नोलॉजी के इस युग में विश्वविद्यालयो एव महाविद्यालयो मे अध्यापक का नैतिक 'गुरू' का स्थान रहना कठिन है परन्तु फिर भी उसे इन शिक्षण सस्थाओं एवं अपने व्यवसाय के प्रति निष्ठावान होना वाछनीय है। इन नवीनतम अनुसंधानों से अध्यापक को अवगत होना आवश्यक है। इस दिशा मे उपेक्षावृत्ति धारण करने से कालान्तर मे यह समस्या नियंत्रण के बाहर हो जायेगी और फिर इसके लिए आमूल-चूल परिवर्तनों की आवश्यकता होगी।

दुर्भाग्य से हमारे आज के अध्यापक समय की इस चुनौती के प्रति सजग नही हैं। भावी समाज के निर्माता का उत्तरदायित्व भूलकर वे इस सामाजिक व्यवस्था के ही अंग बन गए हैं और उनकी तथा अन्य व्यवसाय वाले व्यक्तियों की जीवन व्यवसाय के प्रति पहुंच में कोई अंतर नही दिखाई देता है।

अध्यापक बौद्धिक नेता है। वह अपने छात्रो को समाज मे प्रचलित विरोधाभास, असमानता एव आडम्बरो से अवगत कराते हुए उनकी समाप्ति एवं निराकरण करने का मार्ग प्रदर्शन कर सकता है ताकि वे भावी जीवन मे समाज मे प्रचलित अस्वस्थ शक्तियो से मुकाबला करने के योग्य बन सकें।

— ब. ला.श.

●

Co-ordination in School Administration

S. N. Kaushik

AN organisational structure is necessary when any group has a common task. This is true of other gregarious animals as well as human groups. In order to survive, the group must organise itself.

An organisation must provide some means, process by which a group, individuals, may determine its common goals and purposes. Administration is necessary for achieving the goals of organization and for satisfying the needs of people participating in it. It is necessary to give a sense of security, feeling of belongingness and an opportunity to participate in organisational process. Members too require that their work is to be recognised by others particularly by their leaders.

For the accomplishment of these goals, purposes, and human desires to be fulfilled, an effective organisation must be co-ordinated. When an administrator's and his staff's work is in co-ordination, there springs up a common purpose, a common concern for the group processes to be employed. This co-ordination can best be achieved through an executive head.[1] The co-ordination of

people, physical resources, materials and purpose is the administrative art. It is the blending of human and physical resources into a harmonious whole which requires the greatest skill.[2]

It is necessary to have co-ordination in an organisation to secure efficiency and stability in operation. Deterioration in the co-ordinated efforts is the symptom of being poorly co-ordinated efforts. Co-ordination makes the organism of the organisation in a forward moving.

Obviously to pull together in an overall directive way the activities of planning, organisation, controlling, finance and other personnel is one thing in a small group. But in a group like our complex school, or group which is larger, the job of bringing organic unity both of intention and activities attains a magnitude which requires a higher order of intellectual capacity.[3] Co-ordination here identifies this vital function and process of strengthening these necessary inter-relationships. Co-ordination has to do with administrative efforts to help, formulate, adopt, transmit, give effect to, interpret and oversee the policies of the organisation. Its distinctive attention is upon the successful understanding and willing agreement to proposed new policy, ideas and upon unified, interlocking efforts continuously to have accepted aims and policies well carried out.[4]

Co-ordination is an end or means and more often it is thought of as an activity or a process. The school is a complex one and the administrator has to deal with many persons as all persons in the community are directly or indirectly affected by his behaviour. The administrat[...] deals with human resources as w[...] as with physical resources. He de[...] with unity of purpose, with struct[...] and process. To deal with unity i[...] to deal with relationship betwe[...] parts of the whole and that is [...] co-ordinating effort. Everywher[...] he has to keep the parts well adjuste[...] to one another and to the whol[...] Thus it is evident that administra[...] tion requires its oneness of purpos[...] unity, and efficiency. "Co-ordinati[...] is the process of unifying the contr[...] butions of people, materials a[...] other resources towards the achiev[...] ment of a recognised purpose. Th[...] extent to which the administrato[...] can stimulate all members of sta[...] to contribute purposeful, ordere[...] and effective behaviour towards th[...] accomplishment of established goa[...] is the ultimate test of his compe[...] tence."[5] It is true that administrativ[...] functions, such as co-ordination, [...] the responsibilities of administrator[...] "But as Coladarchi and Getzels poin[...] out, each of these functions become[...] effective only in so far as it [...] communicated to and takes wit[...] the subordinate member." It is thi[...] circumstance that administratio[...] always operates in an impersona[...] setting, which makes the nature o[...] human relationships the crucia[...] factor in the administrative process[...]

The co-ordinating process concerns

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there will be dissipated efforts, wasted resources and poor results. It is through co-ordination that administration must act, without co-ordination administration is inconceivable."[6]

Organisation, simple or complex, is always an impersonal system of co-ordinated human efforts, always there is purpose as the co-ordinating and unifying principle, always there is the necessity for personal willingness and for effectiveness and efficiency in maintaining the integrity of purpose and the continuity of contributions.

A formal organisation puts emphasis upon structuring. The formal organisation provides for regular channels of communication, for co-ordination and control of the activities of members and for means of evaluating the effectiveness of the enterprise. The educational organisation is made up of two important aspects, formal and informal organisation. Barnard states, informal organisations are found within all formal organisations, the latter being essential to order and consistency, the former to vitality. These are mutually reactive phases of co-operation and they are mutually dependent.

The informal organisation grows from impersonal relationship of the people in the formal organisation and develops as a structure of personalities rather than authority or function. "And here comes the task of administrator that he can be cognizant of the interpersonal needs of members of the group and make provisions to satisfy their needs as much as possible."[7] The administrator has to co-ordinate both types of organisation to achieve the purpose and unity.

Co-ordination is necessary at all stages of administrative process. "When the administrator plans, organises, controls and communicates, he co-ordinates each by adjusting the nature and its effects on other."[8] When he plans a budget, he must think of timing the collection to the spending of the funds, and each item of expenditure must be in order of its estimated budget. Budgeting is planning and develops a relationship between two processes. When the administrator directs an order and gives the thing an action, careful thought of its effects is considered. While organising the machinery, number of considerations are to be kept in mind. All efforts are integrated and inter-related in terms of both appropriate structures and attitudes in order to achieve most smoothly the desired end results. "This function is concerned to reconcile and unify the effective interplay of the several necessary functional divisions and outlooks."[9]

Co-ordination Concerns Decision Making

Decisions can be made in the following ways

(i) Decisions can be reached on a single handed or restricted basis and then be announced as a command or order. But "this involves risk, grudge, half hearted, uninformed unconvinced acceptance of ideas."[10]

(ii) There can be decisions after some consultation with the affected individuals yielding passive acquiescence.

(iii) Decisions can be made by

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ficient discussion, shared by erested individuals or group igned to evolve some newly nceived combination of ideas o an agreed policy better than one initially advanced and thus ulting in integration.

"Co-ordination is best assured ere representatives of functional oups which are directly affected or involved in carrying out new licies are parties to the decision ching process."[11] This yields a mber of desirable outcomes, formation—opinions are thus ad- nced by those closest to the issue. scussion takes account of the vitably divergent points of view of se looking at the same problem, m different angles of knowledge d action.

-ordination Concerns mmunication

'Communication is the process which direction, information, as, explanations and questions e transmitted from person to rson or from group to group. It a process of interaction between among individuals.'[12] The com- unication responsibilities should carefully planned, failure to that ective communication loses its rit. This can be done by having o forms of patterns :—

(i) Having the necessary group structures, meetings, face to face provisions for the channelling of decisions and reports.

(ii) Having the necessary leader- ship capacity in representa- tives so that back among their own groups they can be effective in presentation, interpretation and persua- sion.

Co-ordination Rests with the leadership Responsibilities

The school whatever its form may be simple or complex can not achieve effective participation and co-ordination without the inter- pretation of leadership role. "For an educational personnel to achieve unity, integrated purposes, and fluent interaction adequate leadership is essential."[13] The leader co-ordinates the contributions of the group and direct discussion toward the designed consensus. School ad- ministration is concerned with pupils, teachers of different age groups, community leaders and with all other forces, pressures that have their influence on educational activities. The educational objec- tives or aims may be achieved if the various organic units are well co-ordinated in their efforts for the common purpose. The accomplish- ment of this difficult job presents a major challenge to administrator who if does well possesses a fine art.

The school administrator has to give the stimulating lead in building a whole pattern of efforts needed to advance harmony and unity. "Demo- cratic leadership is the only way to achieve the purpose and unity of school administration."[14]

The educational administrator co-ordinates in many educational tasks. His responsibilities are exa- mined in the main four categories where he has to co-ordinate his efforts to secure the achievement and unity.

(i) His responsibilities of co- ordinating relations to com- munity needs.

(ii) His responsibilities of co-ordinating the improvement of educational opportunities.

(iii) His responsibilities of co-ordinating in obtaining developing and improving personnel.

(iv) His responsibilities in providing and maintaining funds and facilities.

"But the truth lies in the fact that co-ordination depends markedly upon the individual staff members' understanding of objectives and plans of school system as a whole, their acceptance of them and their willingness to contribute to them."[15] This emphasizes the need for participation of staff members in formulating policies and objectives of the school system and in the development of programmes to implement them. And the school administrator can facilitate the programme by :—

1. Appropriate administrative structure.
2. Organisational charts and statements of duties and relationship.
3. Written statement of rules, policies and regulations.
4. An adequate system of formal and informal communications
5. Competent co-cordinating or liaison personnel.
6. Councils of personnel at different levels.
7. School committees or work teams with related interest and problems.
8. Written statements of plans, procedures, curriculum outlines and bulletins.
9. Authority judiciously employed.

The administrator utilizes the particular combination of these means which will help him in achieving goals and foster optimum growth and morale among staff members.

Structuring of Co-ordination

Mary P. Follett observes that "every organisation has a form, a structure and what an organisation does, its unified activity, depends not on the constituents alone, but how these constituents are related to one another." Co-ordination is achieved, worked out and effectuated by the following procedures :—

1. *Hierarchical :* Co-ordination may be achieved through that kind of organisation known as hierarchical. In it, it is assumed that co-ordination itself contains its essence in a supreme co-ordinating authority and that there is a formal process through which the co-ordinating authority operates from the top down through the entire organisation of persons. It is the Scaler-chain principle of co-ordination. "The chief implement of co-ordination in this Scaler-chain organisation is coercion, manifest in threats, reprisals, promises, rewards and punishments The ruler is removed from the rules as a matter of policy."[16] In school administration we generally find that an administrator contends also that teachers who rank lower on the scale are incompetent to function organisationally and this thinking frustrates efforts to make education democratic.

2 *Functional :* The second is the functional method, that work should be divided so that each member of

the group can perform the functions for which he is best fitted. The individual is given a responsibility, a specific function but this does not mean that he is discharged from other responsibilities. "Co-ordination can be effective if the structuring process is of representational form. Various committees, societies may be formed, each representing its own interest. And the unity of purpose can be looked upon by co-ordinating their various interests in a unified one."[17]

Functional co-ordination uses organised intelligence as "the Pivot for action, implies a freedom to explore and to experiment, to weigh and test results and to assume responsibility for consequence."[18]

3. *Hierarchical Functional :* The third procedure of co-ordinating educational personnel, and the one which seems most feasible and practical in terms of contemporary conditions is a combination of the most suitable features of both the above principles.

In combination hierarchical functional co-ordination, "the administrator and each member of the personnel will work together in terms of common goals related to actual needs of pupils. The teacher will be the co-ordinator of the work of all the pupils under his charge and the administrator will be co-ordinator of all the services afforded by the school."

4. *Current Trend* : The belief that hierarchical principle of co-ordination is best suited in educational administration is now declining. As the personnel become more intelligent, become more competent through training and experience the trend perhaps will be toward a greater use of functionalism as a method of co-ordination.

Finding of the paper

(1) The co-ordinating process is intended :

(i) to help each individual worker to develop general and immediate goals that are in harmony with those of the other persons involved;

(ii) to aid the individual to perceive correctly the alternatives available to him and others and to judge their probable consequences in relation to accepted goals;

(iii) to help the individual to predict the decisions and actions which will be adopted by the other members;

(2) Co-ordination is the art of administration;

(3) Co-ordination can be effective by good structuring;

(4) Hierarchical structuring is tending towards the greater use of functionalism co-ordination.

__सारसंक्षेप__

शाला प्रशासन में समन्वय

— [illegible] ना. कौशिक

एक कार्य करने वाले व्यक्तियों में संगठन होना आवश्यक है। संगठित सदस्यों की आवश्यकता की संतुष्टि एवं इसके उद्देश्य प्राप्ति हेतु प्रशासन अनिवार्य है। इस प्रशासन के स्थायी रूप से स्वस्थ परिचालन एवं कार्यदक्षता उपलब्धि हेतु प्रबंधक एवं स्टाफ का समन्वय आवश्यक है। यह समन्वय कार्यकारी अधिकारी द्वारा सर्वोत्तम रूप से स्थापित किया जा सकता है। शालाओं में

ऐसे प्रबंधक को विशेष बुद्धि कौशल की आवश्यकता है क्योंकि उसे बहुत से व्यक्तियों से सम्पर्क रखना पड़ता है। उसे मानव के साथ-साथ भौतिक साधनों से भी काम पड़ता है। निश्चित उद्देश्य की प्राप्ति हेतु जनता, सामग्री एवं अन्य साधनों का संगठन ही एकीकरण करने का मार्ग है। प्रशासक की योग्यता भी इसी मे आंकी जाती है कि वह कहा तक अपने स्टाफ के सदस्यों को निश्चित उद्देश्य प्राप्ति हेतु प्रेरणा दे सका है। अतः प्रशासन मे उद्देश्य एकता एवं कार्यदक्षता की आवश्यकता है। समन्वय के लिए प्रशासक का उत्तरदायित्व है कि वह ऐसे संगठित प्रयास करे जिसमे स्वीकृत शैक्षणिक उद्देश्य की प्राप्ति हो। संगठन के अभाव मे अपर्याप्त प्रयास होंगे, साधन व्यर्थ जायेंगे और परिणाम असंतोषजनक होंगे।

शैक्षणिक संगठन औपचारिक एवं अनौपचारिक होता है। प्रशासक को मेल स्थापित करने एवं उद्देश्य प्राप्ति हेतु दोनों में समन्वय स्थापित करना पड़ता है। नीति संबंधी निर्णय लेने मे सभी का सहयोग हो। यह सहयोग नेता की नेतृत्व शक्ति पर निर्भर है। शैक्षणिक प्रशासक विभिन्न शैक्षणिक कार्यों, समुदाय की आवश्यकता, शैक्षणिक उत्तरदायित्व आदि का समन्वय स्थापित करता है। अतः उसे सभी का सहयोग वांछनीय है।

— अ. ला. श.

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The Indian School and Society

A SAD TALE OF INCONGRUENCY

Mehar Chand Sharma

The place of the School in Modern Society :

The school occupies—or rather ought to occupy—the same place in the society that nursery does in a garden. The importance of the relevancy of saplings and seedlings to the life-and-growth needs of the garden calls for little emphasis, but that of the school, student and education to the economic life of the society is generally lost behind the foliage of peripheral aims and has to be sought out by thinkers and educators. Education, like life, is multifaceted and is meant to cover every facet of life-activity. Needless to say its relationship to the economic life of modern man living in industrial societies is of the foremost importance.

All children in advanced societies and luckier ones in the rest, must of necessity enter into a long and deep relationship with the school They perambulate the school as the earth moves round the sun—daily and in semestral seasons. In the life of the child the school and society are closely interlinked. Viewed from a different angle, the school functions as a workshop of

first importance to the society. Its finished products (in the persons of school leaving boys and girls) are the handiwork of teachers functioning within the general framework of social forces. The nursery is a part of the garden and it rears the saplings (students) for later-day (spiritual) transplantation.

The primary function of the school

Every school worth its salt has to provide what no society can do in full measure: a regulated, selective, planned and programmed course in, and as supplemental to, social life, alongwith and as a background to various types of social, cultural, economic and literary orientations and initiations through more or less verbal instruction. The aim is to encapsulate the life and history of the society in a limited time-space span. Education is a formal name for this multi-faceted orientation of the nascent society, necessary for the growth and renewal of the mother-society. Like all growths, education is a function of various agencies, of which the school is active, direct and first The seedling in a nursery is raised by the nurseryman on a plot of land, but sun, rain, wind and insects and pests go a long way in influencing the growth this way or that When Dewey defined education as life, he had, above all, *American society in* mind: a pioneer of its class which was charting its own path in the domains of science, technology, business and arts It was a society which depended and was coming to depend more and more for its efficient functioning on products of the school (and, of course the university). The American housewife, factory worker, farmer, husbandman, artisan, barber, shop-assistant—in short the vast majority of people which was responsible for the normal flow of ordinary social life—had to be treated, cultured, processed and fashioned at school before it could function effectively in society. In other words education as life in school takes the form of a planned projection of social life. In 19th century Britain, social life—symbolised by school practices of the self taught engineer, technician, cattle-breeder and so on—marched far ahead of the life in school. In other words, British education was slow in taking new social developments and emergent social needs in consideration. As a contrast, contemporaneous Germany used its schools (and Universities), as instruments of future growths in the fields of industry, agriculture, and trade and business. Japan went a step ahead· it imported, so to say, the Western School to lay the foundations of new society. Soviet Russia saw to it from the first that the school and the social life flowed as two parallel, albeit differently sized and destined, streams. There is perfect co-ordination between the needs of the society and products of the school

In the so-called developing countries, ranging from Ghana to the Philippines, with India as the most representative constituent of the group, the school and society have been working at cross purposes since the dawn of freedom over them The school does not know what the society needs and the society does not define what it expects from the

school in terms of practical goals. Education for life, for culture, for citizenship is all right—but these at best are peripheral objectives. The hard core of school function in India today is its contribution and relevancy to the economy. If there is failure on this score, peripheral aims become irrelevant, and meet their doom in socio-political frustrations.

There is a shrill outcry (mostly political and uninformed) against the irrelevancy of our education to life–which in the final analysis means the economy. It is seldom realized that the irrelevancy is of the economy and not of the school or education. It is the quality and the needs of the economic life which go to make the knowledges of a reputed Khorana and a faceless, matriculate Khema, relevant and valuable to a nation. If the former with necessary facilities achieves the near-impossible in genetics, the latter can do diverse but modern jobs well. A shoemaker's son after doing his B Sc. on Government scholarship has perforce to forsake his father's dingy, smelly and antiquated workshop and hanker after clerical job. What is true of the shoemaker's son, is equally true of millions of youngmen who are annually turned out by schools, and who refuse to go to their traditional family professions because these professions are not relevant to the knowledge and skills which they acquired at school. An overwhelming sector of our economy is so antiquated, backward and primitive, that it does not offer ghost of a chance to the educated youth to expend his knowledge and skill to his profit and satisfaction. A B.Sc. would gladly become an aircraft navigator, but it would be cruel to expect him to drive a tonga or pull a rickshaw. Despite well meaning eulogies of the dignity of labour and the 'gospel of dirty hand', there is little dignity and divinity in a job which can be done better, cheaper and quicker by lead-pipes and pumps or by drops of diesel and gasoline. School does not, ought not to, work merely to enable youngmen to read poetry and fiction or loaf about the cinema houses. It equips them with abilities to work and produce, to earn their livelihood. These abilities which consist in a general capacity to do odd jobs with or without additional training and skills, are totally irrelevant to the vast sector of economy which lies outside the pale of modern technology.

Most of the criticism levelled against the present system of education is uninformed and negative. Even best among the critics have not spelled out clearly what they expect of the school. Can they construct or even suggest a syllabi that would help educate and at the same time orient our youth to man and run more efficiently the trades and professions which today are prerogatives of people with little or no formal education ? It would be nothing short of a miracle if they could.

Schools all over the developing world are patterned and structured after their counterparts in Europe and America. Their products are modern and relevant to modern economics. Both stand in sharp contrast to those of the medieval world. But the greater part of our

economy, and with that a vast and overwhelming sector of our national life, are basically outmoded, medieval and even ancient. The solution to the problem does not lie so much in changing the systems of education and examination as in modernising the economy as rapidly as possible. Education has lost its vital appeal to the youth because it has become a great waster of its energies, time and non-too-ample family resources. After education what ? is a question economy fails to answer. If students play truant between June and February, and then seek to succeed by bullying the invigilators in March and April, it is not that young minds have become perverse all of a sudden. The student community seems to protest : you expect us to work hard at school and then pass the exams. with credit. But what does education prepare us for ? What do the examinations assess ? If schooling is equivalent to the process of commodity production in industry, evaluation is the counterpart of standardisation and quality control of the products. You insist on high standards in both. But where are the marketing facilities (and the market itself) for what you so rigorously and seriously standardise and assess ?

These are hard and pertinent questions. On reasonable answers to them depends the peace and progress of the country and relevancy of the school to the society and of the youth to the country

सारसंक्षेप

भारतीय विद्यालय और समाज विसंगति की दुःखद कहानी

– मेहरचन्द शर्मा

सामाजिक मूल्यो के नवीनीकरण और विकास में विद्यालयो की बहुत बड़ी भूमिका हुआ करती है। बर्तानिया, जर्मनी, जापान, रूस तथा अमेरिका के विद्यालयों (एवं महाविद्यालयों) ने वहां के समाज मे नवीन मूल्यों की स्थापना में बहुत महत्त्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा की है लेकिन विकासशील देशों मे, विशेषकर भारत में, आजादी के बाद समाज और विद्यालय के बीच आज तक भी सामंजस्य स्थापित नही हो पाया है। समाज विद्यालयों से क्या उम्मीद करता है इसका कोई स्पष्ट निर्देश नही है। आज की अर्थ-प्रधान व्यवस्था मे शिक्षा के बाह्य उद्देश्यों (Peri-Pheral aims) का अर्थ से जुडे बिना कोई मूल्य नही रह गया है। बहुधा अध-कचरी जानकारी वाले राजनीतिज्ञो से यह सुनने मे आता है कि भारतीय शिक्षा पद्धति दोषपूर्ण है और देश की अर्थ-व्यवस्था से तालमेल नहीं रखती है जबकि वस्तुस्थिति यह है कि भारतीय विद्यालय तो विश्व के अन्य देशों के विद्यालयों की तरह आधुनिक पाश्चात्य सभ्यता के तरीकों पर ही सगठित हैं और उनकी उपज भी कार्य-कौशल मे अन्य देशो की उपज से कम दक्ष नहीं है किन्तु भारतीय अर्थ-व्यवस्था स्वय ही इतनी प्राचीन, पिछड़ी हुई और आदिम अवस्था [illegible] है कि इसमें आधुनिक पढ़े-लिखे युवकों के लिये कोई आकर्षण रह ही नहीं गया है। जिन डिग्रियों के लिये भारत मे आज कोई मार्केट नही, उनके लिये आज का युवक क्यों गम्भीर रूप से अध्ययन करेगा ? –मु. दे रा.

Education in England Adapting to Current Changes

Cyril English

MOST people who work in the field of education in this country come into contact sooner or later with some of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. The contacts are generally personal and are limited to a few inspectors and to a specific area of education. The inspectorate also meets a large number of people from the world of industry, of business and the professions, persons who have little detailed knowledge of the educational system and in particular of the workings of H.M.I. Finally, a substantial number of visitors from abroad, teachers, educational administrators and others seek information about our educational system and from time to time ask for information about the work of H.M.I. The changing pattern of education in this country and the number of new agencies now concerned with research and development have led many people to enquire how the Inspectorate is adapting itself to meet these changes.

H.M. Inspectors of Schools operate in England, Wales and Scotland. Inspectorates for England and Wales work in close association and report to the Department. The Scottish Inspectorate reports to the Scottish Education Department. There are close similarities between

there Inspectorates but there are also some differences; the following account is written particularly with the Inspectorate for England in mind. The range of inspector activity is from nursery education to higher education, including a substantial amount of university level work; but it stops short of the universities themselves, which is the only sector of the English educational system with which the Inspectorate is not officially concerned.

The title can be confusing because the Inspectorate not only has contacts with schools of all types, grant-aided, direct grant, independent and public schools, but also with colleges of further education, colleges of technology, colleges of education, the youth service and adult education. Inspectors work in schools and colleges and have contacts with governors, managers and local education authorities. They are, of course, closely associated with the Department and represent the Department on outside bodies in all areas of the country. Their work is country-wide and they live in the areas where they work. There is probably no other body of people in this country, or perhaps anywhere in the world, which is expected to have first-hand experience of such a wide range of educational activity on a country-wide basis.

The Inspectorate has a substantial measure of independence on educational matters. Inside schools and colleges, an Inspector makes his own personal judgments, and his comments and advice are his own. The advice and information reaching the Secretary of State from the Inspectorate is thus derived from a large number of independent judgments.

The present Inspectorate is smaller in size than it was in the mid 1950s. This is the result of the Inspectorate's own planning and is part of a continuing policy of reorganisation which enables it to relinquish from time to time duties which it no longer needs to perform while continuing to provide the information and advice which are necessary in a rapidly expanding service. The complement for England was reduced from 525 to 495 and this is the present figure. The head of the Inspectorate, the Senior Chief Inspector, is assisted by six Chief Inspectors, one of whom is his deputy, and they share in the general policy and management of the Inspectorate. The Inspectorate is deployed in ten geographical divisions, in each of which is a Divisional Inspector responsible for the working of the divisional team. The remainder of the hierarchy consists of 53 staff Inspectors responsible for a subject or phase of education, usually across the whole of the country. Of the remaining 425 inspectors, about 300 operate mainly in primary and secondary schools; the remainder are concerned with further education and teacher training or are seconded to other duties.

Day-to-day Work

The normal day-to-day work involves three types of inspection – general, specialist or district. General inspection involves the overall inspection responsibility for a group of schools or colleges. Specialist inspection is concerned with a subject or phase of education and will

cover work from nursery specialisation through the whole of the school range of subjects, up to sixth form and on the further education, where will be found specialists in all fields of engineering, building construction, business studies, catering education and textiles – to name but a few. This work will span from professional (degree) level to the training and education of craftsmen and technicians or their equivalent levels in non-technical fields. Lastly, there is district inspection which involves liaison with one or more local education authority. Most inspectors' assignments cover two, and sometimes three, of these types of inspection. For Example, a school inspector may be district inspector for a large country borough or country authority, may himself be general inspector of a number of schools in that area and be assisted by other inspectors who are themselves general inspectors each covering perhaps about 150 schools He may also act as a specialist inspector over a much wide area. In the further education field a similar pattern exists and the specialists' areas are often very large, covering at least one of the ten divisions and sometimes spanning three or more divisions.

Inspectors are recruited through public advertisement. Successful candidates will usually be somewhere between thirty-five and forty-five years of age with a substantial and varied teaching experience In the case of technical and commercial inspectors, a period of responsible experience in industry or in business is expected in addition to a period of teaching in a technical institution.

How do Inspectors do their
A substantial proportion of ti
spent visiting a variety of ins
tions, observing the teaching
the learning. Inspectors are
ted to form a judgment of
they see and will normally di
their reactions with the teac
They are concerned with the ins
tion of the schools or colleges
not primarily with indiv
teachers. But overall assessment
only be made by seeing the
done by teachers in the classro
in the laboratory and workshop

Until recently, most inspec
visits have been of the formal
involving a group of inspectors
have culminated in the traditi
type of full inspection report.
visiting party may consist of
inspector for half a day in a
small school to fifteen or so f
week or more in a large techn
college with a full-time staff of a
200 plus a large part-time staff.
procedure includes discussions
individual teachers, discussions
heads of departments and the h
master or principal, a meeting
the governors and, finally, a pu
shed report which is sent to
local education authority. T
reports are confidential to the pa
cular education authority. Circ
tion is at its discretion, but w
reproduced the report should
published in full. Generally spe
ing the report is restricted to
authority and the governors
staff of the school. It is the cust
and practice of the Inspectorate t
nothing in the written report sho
come as a surprise to the recipie
Any criticisms which are to be m
are customarily made first to

teacher concerned. Indeed a number of points which are made with individual teachers are often not discussed with anyone else or only with the head of department. This custom ensures that the most pointed criticisms are made, when they have to be made at all, to the individual concerned who has every opportunity to reply. No one should be surprised by what appears in due course in a written report, although it is inevitable that now and again misunderstandings occur.

But whatever the Inspectorate thinks or says, it can only advise. It has no power to compel and must rely upon persuasion. This is a situation which most inspectors welcome, for it means that their views, which are often based on experience of seeing many teachers at work in differing situations, will only be accepted and followed up if their arguments are good enough to persuade the teachers concerned.

More recently different types of reports have been tried. There is much more visiting of an informal character, involving discussions with teachers and headmasters but no report. This point should be stressed, for some teachers believe that reports of such visits are in fact written and submitted somewhere, this is certainly not the case.

There are today an increasing number of surveys which are quite anonymous in character and in which very often not even individual schools are identified. This type of information is more and more required in connection with planning and development and is a growing feature of H.M.I's work. But most, if not all, of those who know the work of the Inspectorate would stress that in making surveys and inspecting specialist subjects it is essential that the general balance of work and characteristics of the school should also be observed and commented upon.

First-hand knowledge

It is sometimes said by both admirers and critics of the Inspectorate that its members would be more useful if they did not in fact inspect. But everything that the Inspectorate does is based upon its first-hand knowledge and experience of what goes on in the actual teaching situation. Without this variety of experience in all sorts and sizes of educational institution the Inspectorate would have no real knowledge upon which to advise anyone. The right to inspect is a great privilege which requires a large amount of tact and understanding. The Inspectorate is on show and on trial almost every minute of every working day. But this is the core of the Inspector's work and it is difficult to see what contribution the Inspectorate could make if the right to inspect was given up.

What does the Inspectorate do with the knowledge and experience it acquires ? First it offers advice and support and sometimes criticism to individual teachers. But with a rapidly increasing and equally rapidly changing teaching force and the static size of the Inspectorate this is not enough. The Inspectorate also mounts on behalf of the Department a substantial number of short courses for teachers during the vacations. A glance through the Department's short course programme,

which is run entirely by H.M.I.s assisted by lecturers and tutors from the universities, colleges and schools, gives some idea of the range of work with which the inspector is concerned. In addition individual inspectors are often involved in helping local education authorities and other bodies to run local courses.

District inspectors provide a link between the local authorities and the Department. There will normally be three different district inspectors to each local education authority, one dealing with schools, one with vocational further education, and the other with general further education which will include the youth service, evening institutes, adult education and sport. Before long the two further education functions will be combined so that the whole of the section will be dealt with by one district inspector.

More recently the Inspectorate has been concerned with providing assistance to new bodies like the Schools Council. Not only are seven inspectors seconded full time to work for the Council, one as a Joint Secretary, but many other H.M.I.s provide from time to time information which is either requested by or useful to the Council, and they assist individually with field projects. H. M. Inspectors, normally staff inspectors, sit as assessors on nearly all the committees of the Council.

Similarly in the further education field inspectors represent the Department on examining bodies, on regional councils, as assessors to the education committees of professional bodies, on committees of the British Standards Institution and, more recently, on the vast number of committees set up by the new Industrial Training Boards. Similar arrangements exist in non-vocational further education and in the teacher training world.

The Inspectorate has also provided joint secretaries or assessors to the Central Advisory Councils of the post-war years—Crowther, Newsom, Plowden.

Advising the Department

Within the Department itself are stationed thirty-two inspectors, mostly chief and staff inspectors. The senior chief and other chief inspectors are in continuous contact with the administrative branches and with H. M. I. working out in the ten divisions. More and more they are concerned with collecting information from the field and supplying it to the Department and other educational bodies with which they are associated. It has in fact often been said in the past that the Inspectorate is the eyes and ears of the Department. A group of inspectors working with a chief inspector is concerned full time with development and external relations. The development work entails contact with educational research and liaison with the Schools Council. Recently much work has been concerned wih the development and use of educational technology. On the external relations side, they assist the Department in meeting and talking to visitors from home or overseas, arranging the programmes of visitors from abroad and dealing with a substantial number of requests for H.M.I.'s help overseas. A request for more assistance on educational planning from the

Department's Architects and Building Branch has led to the building up of a team of inspectors concerned with this work. Altogether out of the reduced total mentioned earlier, eleven inspectors are on a *full-time* secondment and a varying number of others are away for varying periods of time on outside assignments.

In addition to representation on numerous educational bodies, the Inspectorate also carries out a number of other tasks It inspects the educational provision for Service families overseas; it also acts in an advisory capacity to the Armed Services, when requested by them, on the provision of education for the Forces, both technical and non-technical. There is also being a team assigned to visit from time to time schools run by the British Families Education Service in Germany. H.M I.s represent the Department, as 'assessors', on a vast number of professional committees and also at conferences both at home and abroad. The number of requests by persons and bodies both inside and outside the educational service for the services of H M I.s is very great indeed, so great that it is by no means possible to accept all the invitations which are received.

This then is a rough outline of the Inspectorate at the present time. The 'watch-dog' role of the Inspectorate has been disappearing for several years, although the Inspectorate must always remain sufficiently competent and experienced to enter any educational establishment to which it has right of entry and to write a full and critical report which it is prepared to discuss and substantiate with all concerned.

It must also continue to cover the broad range of schools and colleges over the whole of the country. *Although individual inspectors* can only work in limited educational and geographical situations, teams of H.M.I. can be quickly got together and these can cross the boundaries of nursery, primary, secondary and further education and also the geographical boundaries between local education authorities and the major divisions of the country.

The work of the Inspectorate is becoming increasingly of a consultative type both nationally and locally. *It has no power to compel*, nor would it wish to have it. The Inspectorate believes that its organisation and way of visiting enables it to advise and assist in the spreading of good ideas and practices. Its root strength lies in its privilege to enter the classroom, laboratory or workshop and to see at first-hand the teacher and the taught. Just to be told what is to be taught is no substitute for this for what really matters is what is learned. The number of formal reports written by the Inspectorate is but a trickle compared to fairly recent times. New roles and practices are taking their place. But the work done by the Inspectorate is dependent upon the good relations and understanding between individual teachers and inspectors, however much we change our procedures and techniques, the need to preserve these personal relations and mutual respect and confidence will always remain.

Courtesy 'Trends in Education' quarterly, Department of H.M.S O , England

Play-Centres for Children in Rajasthan

[illegible]

[illegible]

Introduction

Very little has so far been done with regard to pre-primary education. This is practically negligible in proportion to the child population of age group 3-5 years. The existing institutions for pre-primary education can hardly cater to the need which is stupendous. The situation obviously calls for some kind of joint action. The requirements will be enormous. But we cannot afford to wait till everything is available. If we wait, we wait for ever. It is best to start here and now.

The Education Commission 1964-66 has rightly suggested that experimentation in pre-primary education should be carried out to devise less costly methods of expanding it so that the benefit of pre-primary education may be extended to a larger proportion of children.

Having that in mind an effort in this direction has been made by the State Institute of Education, Rajasthan. Pre-primary education

is being imparted on experimental basis through children's play-centres ■ recommended by the Kothari Commission.

Aims and Objectives

The aims and objectives with hich the children's play-centres ave been started on experimental asis can be enumerated as below:

- —To evolve a workable plan of pre-primary education through which the child can easily pass on to lower primary schools without being emotionally least disturbed.
- —To evolve ■ programme of pre-primary education which can suit socio-economic background of the child.
- —To find out possibilities of running pre-primary education with economical equipment and material so as to make the programme popular and practicable in the country.

The Prelude

Having these objectives in mind an attempt was made to concretise the programme.

At the conference of the extension workers of the seven Extension Services Centres of Rajasthan organised annually at the State Institute of Education, amongst other items this new programme was introduced and discussed keeping in view the following objectives :

1. To acquaint the extension workers with the whole programme and their role in running of such centres.
2. To acquaint them with the methods and techniques of handling children enrolled at the play-centre.
3. To give them practice in preparing play material out of the locally available material.

It was agreed upon by all to undertake the programme on experimental basis for the age group (5-6) years at the initial stage. It was also decided that each Extension Services Centre will have children's play-centres attached to at least five lower primary schools.

The whole idea of pre-primary education was conveyed through talks, lectures and discussions. The recommendations of Kothari Commission in this regard were also considered. The idea of children's play-centres in terms of pre-primary education was made clear to the participants. The technique of handling children of age group (5-6) years was discussed at length. The participants were got acquainted with the means and methods of preparing play material out of the available material without incurring much expenditure

Two things were considered most important, that it would run on a most economical basis and that no additional teacher for the purpose would be given.

This is how the play-centres run

The seven primary Extension Services Centres of Rajasthan have started the experiment by attaching children's play-centres to lower primary schools of their area. The play-centres are, therefore, run in the same building of the lower primary schools. It was considered useful that the teacher who teaches class I should take up this work by devo-

ting three hours to class I and another three hours for children's play-centres. The state has provision for the teaching of class I for three hours.

Such teachers of the selected schools were imparted training in running the children's play-centres by the Co-ordinator at the Extension Services Centre before starting the programme. The main aspects of the programme of play-centres are being mentioned below :

1. WORK SCHEDULE :

The total duration is of 3 hours. In the beginning the children were allowed to come as and when they liked so that they may develop an interest in coming to play. Later on the following work schedule is practised.

Work	*Time*
1. Prayer and cleanliness programme.	20 min.
2. Games and plays (outdoor).	30 min.
3. Toilet.	5 min.
4. Sensory Training.	30 min.
5. Interval.	15 min.
6. Arithmetic through indoor games.	30 min.
7. Language.	30 min.
8. Free drawing, painting etc.	20 min.

Note : General Science and Social Studies are taught during the course of other subjects and activities.

2. ACTIVITIES :

The activities of the children's play-centres have been perceived under three major areas. These are the activities to help the physical, social and moral, and emotional and intellectual development of the child.

(a) *For physical development :*

The objective of physical growth is being achieved by the games and plays and the play material substituted as below :

GAMES AND PLAYS :

Those games and plays which are being played in the local environment and which can be played, form the basis. They are :

1. Running, hopping, skipping, climbing, sliding, jumping, swimming.
2. Group games and action songs.
3. Rhythmic exercises.
4. Games for sensory training.
5. Musical games.
6. Memory games.
7. Games for representing various things like engine and train etc.

PLAY MATERIAL :

1. Tennis ball.
2. Ball prepared of waste cloth
3. Ping pong ball.
4. Thali Katori and bell f music and rhythmic exercis
5. A big trunk of tree climbing, jumping etc.

(b) *For social and moral deve ment :*

No one activity serves only purpose. Similarly no purpose can be served b single activity. The o tunities provided for ph development are also ve utilised for social and development of the ch Efficiency and sense of a ment are given due co tion. To help the child

social and moral values full care is taken to see that the following rules are observed by all the children in different situations :

1. Cleanliness (personal & of the school)
2. Standing in line and in queue to wait for his turn.
3. Seeking permission for using or lifting other children's things.
4. Sharing of toys, implements etc.
5. Working in a group by turns.
6. Respecting elders and loving young ones.
7. Speaking softly in low tone.
8. Standing and sitting properly.
9. Putting things in proper order.
10. Distributing things in a judicious manner.
11. Appreciating good work of other children.
12. Thanking for any service done to them.

The teachers try to sow the seeds of sociability and culture with perseverance in different situations as and when they come during the day's programme.

(c) For emotional and intellectual growth :

The curiosity and hunger for knowledge in the child are tried to be satisfied by the teachers whenever children approach them with their questions. The shy are encouraged and the bully are asked to help others. The imparting of knowledge is not given so much attention as the making of the child familiar with the school, the teacher, the fellow-children, and other aspects of school. Some of the material which the teachers have collected and prepared for imparting information and knowledge are as below:

(a) CONCEPT OF SHAPE :

(i) long-small
(ii) Thick-thin
(iii) High-low
(iv) Round-square-triangle

Material :
Wooden logs, clay slabs, bangles of different sizes, earthen pot.

(b) CONCEPT OF COLOUR :

(i) Yellow
(ii) Blue
(iii) Red

Material :
Coloured waste material from tailor, coloured waste paper, wrappers, packing cases, pieces of bangles etc.

(c) CONCEPT OF SOUND :

(1) Loud-Low
(2) Sound of instruments
(3) Sound of music

Material :
Whistle, school-bell, 'Pooja'-bell, Harmonium, 'Dholak', 'Thali', 'Katori'.

(d) CONCEPT OF TOUCH (SENSORY) :

(1) Rough-smooth
(2) Hard-soft

Material .
Sand paper, Khadi piece, Silk piece, Stone, Clay.

(e) CONCEPT OF WEIGHT :

(1) Heavy-light

Material
Big stone and small stone.

(f) CONCEPT OF TASTE :

(1) Sweet-bitter

(2) Sour-salt.

Material :

Sugar, 'Neem leaves', tamarind, salt.

(g) CONCEPT OF SMELL :

(1) Scent

(2) Bad smell

Material :

Scent, 'Hing', Phenyle, Kerosene oil.

For development of linguistic abilities

The children are encouraged and given opportunities to express themselves orally, and also to develop understanding of spoken expression. The stage of writing is given secondary place by giving them opportunity to draw lines or write on sand according to their own liking. To help to develop language the following are the methods used:

- —Story telling : Local and other collected and written by teachers taking into consideration the local environment.
- —Rhymes and songs : Local songs are encouraged. Collection of Rhymes is given to teachers which is being increased by them.
- —Conversation : About things seen and known to most of the children on way to school and back home or those which have been seen by most of them in their vicinity. Known and not seen are also taken up with the help of picture cards.
- —Dramatization : Dramatising to increase vocabulary is encouraged mostly according to the choice of the children.
- —Writing : Writing with finger on sand; and with improvised brush made of palm twig for drawing etc. on old newspapers.

For Development of Computational Skills

Beginning is made with the development of the concept of numbers and quantity by referring to the numbers and quantity of familiar objects interesting to the child.

For Adjustment with Social and Physical Environment

Social studies is regarded purely a science to help the child to adjust to his social environment. And General Science is regarded as a science to help the child to adjust to his physical environment. These are mainly taught by taking out children to observe and explore the environment around them. This makes it interesting for the children and they want to know more and more about the animals, birds, trees etc.

As regards social studies the work is being done on the same lines as has already been discussed earlier in this paper regarding the social development of the child. Besides this he is told stories and opportunities for discussions, dramatisation, recitation and games are also provided wherein incidentally he learns about social environment. Use of old, used and waste material like magazines, calendars, newspapers, cigarette packets, match boxes, empty boxes etc. is being made for making flash cards, picture

cards etc. for concretising the concepts.

Conclusion

Thus we come to the conclusion that pre-primary education which has been neglected so far needs all attention by people at all levels so that action in the right direction is taken without further delay. Pre-primary education in a developing country like India should sprout from its own soil so that it can grow and flourish. This paper has been prepared keeping in view the above facts simply with the objective that those who are in a position to take policy decision may start concentrating towards the direction indicated in this paper. And if we start concretising our ideas the so-called impossible or most difficult problem of making pre-primary education universal can be made possible and lesser difficult to handle, though the author agrees that a number of such steps are necessary before we come to a national pattern of pre-primary education in the country.

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Impact of
Three Hour Schools
ON ENROLMENT, WASTAGE AND STAGNATION IN RAJASTHAN

C. S. Bhatt

A STUDY of the progress of elementary education in India has revealed that 60% of the children in the age-group 6-14 who do not attend schools in the country belong to six States of which Rajasthan is one. Keeping in view the above finding the State Institute of Education of Rajasthan planned an action programme first on experimental basis and it proved worthwhile to launch the same in the State under a phased programme according to the available resources in collaboration with the Panchayat Raj administration of the State.

Three Hour Schools

The action programme was named Three-Hour School or 'Prahar Pathshalas' and was started in 1965. First of all two Panchayat Samities namely Shahpura in Bhilwara District and Rajsamand in Udaipur District were selected for this purpose. Some traditional schools were converted into three hour schools and a few were newly

opened in both the Panchayat Samities. The main consideration was to adjust the school with the needs of the Community and to proceed rapidly towards Universal enrolment.

Needs of the *Community*

In Rajasthan the children, who, either do not join the School or drop out of it with little or no achievement, largely belong to the weaker part of the society whose needs are :

(a) To keep the children with the family for help in domestic, professional work for a longer time than the school ordinarily provides;

(b) to send the children to the school when they can be spared from domestic, professional work; and

(c) to get the children educated in that school which helps them learn the vocation of the family or some other vocation by which bread can be earned side by side with general education.

It has other needs, also, but the above-mentioned needs received our attention and we planned three hour schools to satisfy them. By doing so it is hoped that a part of the society which is indifferent to education of its children may be attracted towards school.

Salient Features

The salient features of 3 Hour Schools are :-

(a) It opens daily when it suits most of the parents.

(b) It works when the parents do not need the children to be with them (relatively) and it observes holidays, vacations when they need the children most (relatively) for help in domestic, professional work. However, the number of working days, holidays and vacations in it in a session remains the same as in any other schools.

(c) Its working hours are about *3 hours daily.*

(d) It has the same syllabus as is in practice in any other school except craft work, handiwork. The minimum time required for the proper study of a subject has been ensured in it in a flexible way.

(e) It pays special attention to the celebration of all important festivals in order to utilise their educational potentialities.

(f) It co-ordinates the life experiences of the children gained at home or in the field with their parents to the education imparted at the schools.

(g) Its teacher inspires students to participate in the domestic, professional work at their own hours, insists on the parents to take help from their children in domestic professional work, arranges demonstrations by Development Officers to enable the children to learn progressive methods of doing domestic, professional work.

(h) Its teacher gives a substantial time to parental co-operation for ensuring the education of the children.

Inferences

1. The stagnation has been totally uprooted in the fourth year in both the types of schools.

2. It was comparatively lower in three hour schools than traditional schools.

3. It was more in lower classes than those of higher classes in both the types of schools.

Impact on results

Three hour schools have proved better not only in the area of enrolment, wastage and stagnation but the examination results are also better in three hour schools than those of traditional schools. The table given below supports this idea.

TABLE No. 4

S. No.	Classes	Traditional Schools			Three Hour Schools		
		Students appeared	Passed	Percentage	Students appeared	Passed	Percentage
1.	III	488	416	85%	25	22	88%
2.	IV	373	351	89%	20	20	100%
3.	V	243	229	90%	6	6	100%

Inferences

1. The results are better in flexible three hour schools than traditional schools in all the classes from III to V.

2. The results are better in higher classes than lower classes in both the types of schools.

Interpretation

The results given indicate that the standards in instruction are better in three hour schools than traditional schools while time given to the children for instruction in schools is rest about half while courses are the same. It means three hour schools are not only economical but superior to traditional schools also from instructional point of view.

Concluding Remarks

The three hour school programme is a unique programme of the State of Rajasthan not only from the point of view of increasing enrolment and reducing wastage and stagnation but from the point of view of imparting improved instruction at primary level. It is dynamic because adjustments are possible in this programme according to the need of the situation and the local community. It is economic from the point of view of per capita expenditure. During the present condition of the State of Rajasthan it has proved a boon to impart education to the children of the masses in the State. This is why during the period of the Fourth Five Year Plan the State Institute of Education Rajasthan intends to give more attention to this project and to improve its working to a great extent so as to boost up the enrolment and benefit the weaker section of the society and reduce wastage and stagnation at the primary level.

सार-संक्षेप

तीन घण्टे के विद्यालय या प्रहरशालाओं का राजस्थान में नामांकन, अपव्यय व अवरोधन पर प्रभाव

– चन्द्रशेखर भट्ट

राजस्थान भारत के छः राज्यों मे से एक है जिसमे ६–१४ वर्ष के ६०% बालक शालाओ मे अध्ययन नही करते हैं। राजस्थान के राज्य शिक्षा संस्थान ने इस स्थिति का सामना करने हेतु 'प्रहरशालाओं' (तीन घंटे के विद्यालय) का प्रयोगीय स्तर पर आयोजन किया तथा यह प्रयास अत्यन्त ही सफल रहा। हमारे देश में अपव्यय तथा अवरोधन एक बडी गंभीर समस्या है जिसका समाधान 'प्रहर पाठशालाओं' द्वारा संभव है। विद्वान् लेखक ने आँकड़ों द्वारा यह स्पष्ट किया है कि 'प्रहर पाठशालाओं' में विद्यार्थियो के शैक्षणिक स्तरों मे उन्नति हुई है तथा बालको की उपस्थिति ५१% से बढ़कर ७१% तक हो गई है। ग्रामीण बालकों के लिए 'प्रहर पाठशालायें' बहुत ही उपयोगी सिद्ध हुई हैं। क्योंकि इन पाठशालाओ के कार्यक्रमों मे आवश्यकताओं के अनुसार लचीलेपन का तत्त्व निहित है और विद्यार्थी अपने माता-पिता के साथ पारिवारिक व्यवसायों मे अपना समय तथा सहयोग दे सकते हैं।

– श. स. ज.

नीचे के पदों तक वे पहुँच सकते हैं जिनकी संख्या अल्प है, संयुक्त निदेशक के २–३ ही पद हैं। उपनिदेशक के भी महिलाओं सहित ६–७ पद हैं, इसी भाँति विद्यालय निरीक्षक के भी २५–३० पद ही हैं। कार्यरत शिक्षकों की संख्या तो हजारों तक पहुँचती है। इन हजारों शिक्षकों में से इन पदों पर लगभग 40 शिक्षकों की ही तो पदोन्नति हो सकती है। ऐसी स्थिति में स्पष्ट है कि कई व्यक्ति तो शिक्षक के रूप में ही सेवानिवृत्ति प्राप्त करेंगे। तब आवश्यकता इस बात की है कि जिन शिक्षकों को पदोन्नति नहीं मिली है उन्हें यह अनुभव कराया जाना चाहिए कि उन्हें ऊटपटांग ढंग से पदोन्नति से वंचित नहीं रखा गया है और न ही पदोन्नत शिक्षकों को अधिकारी की इच्छा से ही पदोन्नति का अवसर मिला है। यदि अधिकारी अपनी इच्छा से ही, बिना किसी आधार या सिद्धान्त के पदोन्नति करेंगे तो शिक्षकों में नैतिक बल की कमी आ जायगी, फलतः वे शालाओं में कार्य करने से भी जी चुरायेंगे तथा उनका असन्तोष द्विगुणित हो जायगा। इससे बचने के लिए आवश्यक है कि पदोन्नतियाँ ठोस आधारों पर हों।

सामान्यतया पदोन्नति के दो सिद्धान्त व्यवहार में प्रचलित हैं, यथा·

१. वरिष्ठता (Seniority) तथा

२. योग्यता (Merit)

वरिष्ठता

इस सिद्धान्त के अनुसार पदोन्नति का आधार यह है कि सम्बन्धित शिक्षक कब से सेवा कर रहा है ? इस प्रकार जिस शिक्षक का सेवाकाल जितना अधिक लम्बा होगा, उसकी पदोन्नति उतनी ही शीघ्र होगी। इसे दूसरे शब्दों में यों भी कहा जा सकता है कि एक शिक्षक को अन्य शिक्षकों की तुलना में उच्च वेतन-स्तर या उच्च श्रेणी की वेतन-शृंखला में इसलिए पदोन्नति का लाभ दिया जाता है कि उसने अन्य शिक्षकों की तुलना में अधिक समय तक सेवा की है। इस प्रकार वरिष्ठ व्यक्ति को पदोन्नति का लाभ मिलता है।

वरिष्ठता के आधार पर पदोन्नति के लिए तर्क

1. वरिष्ठता एक वस्तुगत एवं यंत्रवत् तथ्य है, इसे गोपनीय नहीं कहा जा सकता। पदोन्नति के समय इसे दृष्टि से ओझल नहीं किया जाना चाहिए। दो शिक्षकों के बीच अन्तर को स्पष्ट देखा जा सकता है अतः पदोन्नति के परिणाम के दायित्व को मापने की जरूरत नहीं रहती है।

2. इस सिद्धान्त के अनुसार हर शिक्षक को पूर्व निश्चित मानदण्ड के अनुसार देर सबेर क्रमशः पदोन्नति का अवसर मिल जाता है। ऐसी स्थिति में यह सही व न्यायपूर्ण सिद्धान्त है। इससे शिक्षकों में सद्भाव तथा नैतिक बल का विकास होता है।

3. पदोन्नति के समय वरिष्ठता सिद्धांत का दृढ़ता से पालन करने पर राजनीतिज्ञों के हस्तक्षेप को स्थान नहीं मिलता है।

4. वरिष्ठ व्यक्ति दीर्घानुभवी होता है तथा अधिक अनुभव पदोन्नति के लिए मापदण्ड है।

5. शिक्षकों को ज्ञात रहता है कि उनका वरिष्ठताक्रम क्या है तथा सम्भवतः कब तक उनकी पदोन्नति हो सकेगी। यह परिणामों का स्पष्ट ज्ञान अच्छे शिक्षकों को सरकारी सेवा में आने को आकृष्ट करता है।

6. वरिष्ठता सिद्धान्त इतना स्पष्ट व सरल है कि शिक्षकों में पारस्परिक जलन तथा द्वेष की भावना उत्पन्न होने का कोई कारण नहीं रह जाता है। और

7. अन्तिम पर महत्त्वपूर्ण है कि सभी शिक्षक इसी के पक्ष में हैं।

पदोन्नति का वरिष्ठता सिद्धान्त सभी दोषों से मुक्त हो, इसमें कोई कमी न

हो, आलोचना से मुक्त हो; ऐसी बात भी नहीं है। वरिष्ठता के सिद्धान्त मे कई कमियां हैं जिनको लेकर यह शिक्षक समाज मे भयकर असन्तोष का कारण बना हुआ है। असन्तोष के प्रमुख कारण इस प्रकार हैं:

1. यह सिद्धान्त केवल वरिष्ठता-सेवा-कार्य की अवधि पर ही विचार करता है। योग्यता की वरिष्ठता के सामने बलि दे दी जाती है। ऐसी स्थिति में यह अनिवार्य रूप से आवश्यक नहीं है कि वरिष्ठ शिक्षक सदैव कनिष्ठ की अपेक्षा योग्य ही होंगे। अर्थात् वरिष्ठ व्यक्ति योग्य ही हो, यह कोई अनिवार्य शर्त नही है।

2. इस सिद्धान्त के अनुसार यह भी निश्चय नही किया जा सकता कि हर शिक्षक, शिक्षा निदेशालयान्तर्गत उच्च/उच्चतम पदो पर पहुँच ही जायगा तथा वह वहा उचित अवधि तक बना भी रहेगा।

3. यदि पदोन्नति के लिए केवल वरिष्ठता ही एकमात्र आधार रहा तो वे सुधार का कोई प्रयत्न नहीं करेंगे। कारण कि राजकीय तन्त्र मे सभी शिक्षक सोचते हैं कि वरिष्ठता की पंक्ति में खड़े हैं, समय पर पदोन्नति हो ही जायगी तथा यही सोच कर वे बराबर कार्य करना बंद कर देते हैं।

4. वरिष्ठता तथा उम्र का संयोग कोई अनिवार्य नही है। खास करके उस क्षेत्र मे जहा कुछ पदों पर सीधी भर्ती होती है तथा कुछ पदों पर पदोन्नति के आधार पर। यदि कोई नवयुवक सीधी भर्ती से किसी अपेक्षाकृत अधिक उम्र वाले कर्मचारी के ऊपर रख दिया जाय तो स्थिति बड़ी उपहासास्पद हो जाती है। कई बार व्यवहार मे देखा जाता है कि कर्मचारी उम्र बढ़ने के साथ जीवन की प्रतियोगिता के आदान-प्रदान मे पिछड़ जाते है फलतः वे छोटी-छोटी बातों पर भी असहिष्णु या क्रोधी हो सकते हैं। ऐसी स्थिति मे अधीनस्थ कर्मचारियों की कार्यक्षमता का पूरा-पूरा उपयोग नहीं होगा, उनको प्रोत्साहन नही मिलेगा तथा वे निरुत्साही हो जायेंगे। यही बात महत्वाकांक्षी लोगों पर भी लागू होगी क्योंकि उनके सम्मान, व्यक्तित्व, साहस, आत्म-विश्वास, प्रगतिशील दृष्टिकोण को प्रोत्साहन देने वाले तत्त्व समाप्त हो जायेंगे। इससे एक इस प्रकार का दृष्टिकोण पैदा होता है कि "जो है, जैसा है, वैसा बनाये रखो।" तथा इसी में वे आत्म-संतोष अनुभव करते हैं।

इस प्रकार यह कहा जा सकता है कि वरिष्ठता का सिद्धान्त कुछ पूर्व निश्चित गलत मान्यताओं पर आधारित है:

1. एक वेतन-शृंखला के शिक्षक लोग पदोन्नति के योग्य होते हैं।

2. वरिष्ठता सूची प्रायः शिक्षकों की उम्र के साथ मेल खाती है इसलिये यह कल्पना करना कि उच्च पदों की संख्या इतनी अधिक है कि सभी शिक्षकों को अवसर मिल जायगा।

3. उच्च पद क्रमशः खाली होते रहेंगे।

यह एक आकाश कुसुम के समान आदर्श स्थिति है जो कभी प्राप्त नही हो सकती। व्यवहार मे देखा जाता है कि एक वेतन-शृंखला के सभी शिक्षक पदोन्नति के योग्य नही होते, प्रायः पदोन्नतिया कम होती हैं, उनकी प्रक्रिया बड़ी जटिल होती है। सभी शिक्षकों की पदोन्नतिया हो जायं, इतने पद भी नही होते हैं और न ही इतने पदो का सृजन किया जा सकता है।

योग्यता का सिद्धान्त

वरिष्ठता सिद्धान्त का उल्टा योग्यता सिद्धान्त है। इसके अनुसार पदोन्नति के समय शिक्षकों की योग्यताओं तथा उपलब्धियों पर विचार किया जाता है। शिक्षकों ने कितने दिन सेवा की है या उनका सेवाकाल कितना लम्बा है, इस पर कोई विचार नहीं किया जाता। इस सिद्धान्त के अनुसार सर्वाधिक योग्य व्यक्ति पदोन्नति

के लिए चुना जाता है। यह सिद्धान्त योग्य शिक्षकों को नौकरी में बराबर बनाये रखने में सहायता देता है, शिक्षकों को मेहनत व दक्षता से कार्य करने के लिए प्रोत्साहन देता है। इस भाँति शिक्षकों में नैतिक बल तथा कौशल बनाये रखने में सहायता पहुँचाता है।

परन्तु वरिष्ठता की तरह योग्यता का विचार सरलता से समझा नहीं जा सकता है। स्पष्ट है कि योग्यता का विचार बड़ा जटिल है। योग्यता के निर्धारण में, सम्भव है, दो अधिकारी भी समान राय न रख पायें। योग्यता के अन्तर्गत बुद्धि, व्यक्तित्व, व्यवहारकुशलता, नेतृत्वक्षमता, चारित्रिक दृढ़ता आदि अनेक बातें आ जाती हैं। ये तथा इसी प्रकार के अन्य गुण प्रकृतिदत्त होते हैं तथा किसी भी शिक्षक के साथ एक या अन्य कारण से पक्षपात भी हो सकता है। फलतः साथी शिक्षकों में जलन व द्वेष का जन्म हो सकता है। सभी पदोन्नति की योग्यतायें रखने वाले शिक्षकों की योग्यता की जाँच करने में भी व्यावहारिक कठिनाइयाँ आती हैं। उम्मीदवार की योग्यता का निर्णय करने के लिए जो विभिन्न पद्धतियाँ हैं, उनकी भी अपनी मर्यादायें हैं, उनको भी आलोचना से परे नहीं कहा जा सकता– इन पर भी विचार करना आवश्यक है।

योग्यता-निर्धारण की कसौटी

१. लिखित परीक्षा

२. शिक्षा निदेशक का निजी निर्णय

३. सेवा-योग्यताक्रम

लिखित परीक्षा के तीन प्रकार हो सकते हैं। (i) मुक्त प्रतियोगिता, इसमें कोई भी शिक्षक, जो योग्यतायें व अनुभव पूरे करते हों, भाग ले सकता है। (ii) सीमित प्रतियोगिता, इसमें केवल उन्हीं शिक्षकों को परीक्षा देने की अनुमति दी जा सकती है जो पहले से ही राजकीय सेवा में हों तथा (iii) उत्तीर्ण परीक्षा– इस प्रकार की परीक्षा में शिक्षकों को पदोन्नति के लिए केवल उत्तीर्ण होना आवश्यक है। इन तीन प्रकार की प्रतियोगिता-परीक्षाओं के भी अपने-अपने गुणदोष हैं।

शिक्षा निदेशक का निजी निर्णय उनकी मनोदशा से प्रभावित (Subjectivity) हो सकता है, क्योंकि शिक्षा निदेशक हर शिक्षक के निकट सम्पर्क में नहीं रहता है, ऐसी स्थिति में इस दोष से बचने के लिए पदोन्नति के लिए मण्डल बनाया जा सकता है। इस मण्डल को विभागीय पदोन्नति समिति (Departmental Promotion Committee) के नाम से जाना जा सकता है।

तीसरी विधि के अनुसार उम्मीदवार शिक्षक की योग्यता का मूल्यांकन उसके सेवा-अभिलेख से किया जाता है। हर शिक्षक की सेवाओं का लिखित रिकार्ड रखा जाता है, उसमें उसके कार्यों का ब्योरा रहता है। ऐसे अभिलेख से पदोन्नति के समय शिक्षकों की योग्यता के निर्धारण में मूल्यवान सहायता मिलती है।

ऊपर दोनों सिद्धान्तों के पक्ष व विपक्ष में दिये गये तर्कों के आधार पर वरिष्ठता या योग्यता के सिद्धान्तों के सम्बन्ध में निश्चयपूर्वक कुछ नहीं कहा जा सकता है। पदोन्नति के लिए वरिष्ठता के सिद्धान्त का साधारण अर्थ यही है कि सेवाकाल कितना लम्बा है? अगर-मगर दूर हटकर यदि इस सिद्धान्त से यह चाहें कि जो शिक्षक पदोन्नति के योग्य हैं, उनको वरिष्ठता के क्रम से पदोन्नति दे दी जाए या उनको पदोन्नति के लिए विचार किया जाय। इसका यह आशय है उन्हें छांट लिया जाय, यह होगा वरिष्ठता-सह-योग्यता (Seniority-Cum-Merit) सिद्धान्त कहलाता है। इसी सिद्धान्त का एक रूप यह भी हो सकता है कि वरिष्ठता के आधार पर केवल कुछेक शिक्षकों के लिए विचार किया जाय और फिर उनमें से केवल योग्यता के अनुसार

पदोन्नतियां दी जायं। सामान्यतया शिक्षक लोग इन बातों पर सहमत हो सकते हैं —

१. उच्च पदों पर केवल योग्यता के आधार पर ही पदोन्नतियां हों। इन पदों के लिए वरिष्ठता का विचार बिलकुल छोड़ दिया जाना चाहिए।

२. मध्यम पदो पर पदोन्नति के समय योग्यता को निर्णायक तथा वरिष्ठता को गौण तत्त्व माना जाना चाहिए। और

३. अधीनस्थ पदों पर पदोन्नति के लिए वरिष्ठता को निश्चित रूप से अधिक महत्त्व दिया जाना चाहिए।

वरिष्ठता सिद्धान्त की इतनी आलोचना होने के बाद भी यह कहा जा सकता है कि आज भी व्यवहार में पदोन्नतियो के समय वरिष्ठता को ही अधिक महत्त्व दिया जाता है। व्यवहार में वरिष्ठता की उपेक्षा करना बड़ा कठिन होता है। आयु तथा वरिष्ठता की प्रतिष्ठा अब भी बनी हुई है। पदोन्नति का चाहे कोई सा वरिष्ठता या योग्यता-सिद्धान्त हो, उसके अनुसार सभी योग्यता-प्राप्त शिक्षकों, उनके अनुभव, तथा नूतन काम के सम्पादन करने की क्षमता पर विचार किया जाना चाहिए तथा इन सब गुणो का आंशिक रूप से निर्धारण पहले के सेवा अभिलेख से, आंशिक रूप से निजी विशेषताओं द्वारा और आंशिक रूप से किसी न किसी प्रकार की परीक्षा द्वारा किया ही जाना चाहिए। ऐसा ही पदोन्नति का सिद्धान्त अधिकतम शिक्षकों को अधिकतम सन्तोष प्रदान कर सकेगा।

इस सम्बन्ध में शिक्षा आयोग [१९६४-६६] की अनुशंसाओं पर भी ध्यान देना चाहिए —

'विशिष्ट विषयों के अध्यापकों या प्रशिक्षण संस्थाओं के शिक्षकों को" कोठारी शिक्षा आयोग के अनुसार, "अग्रिम वेतन-वृद्धियों का विशेष भत्तों के रूप में प्रोत्साहन दिये जा सकते हैं।"[2]

"महाविद्यालयों में कार्य करनेवाले कनिष्ठ व्याख्याताओं तथा उच्च माध्यमिक शालाओं में कार्य करने वाले समान योग्यता वाले शिक्षकों को समान वेतन दिया जाना चाहिए। उच्च माध्यमिक शालाओं में कार्यरत शिक्षक जब प्रशिक्षण प्राप्त करलें तो उनके प्रशिक्षण को सम्मान देने के लिए दो अग्रिम वेतन-वृद्धियां दी जानी चाहिए"' प्रथम श्रेणी के स्नातक एवं अधिस्नातकों को भी अग्रिम वेतन-वृद्धियां दी जायं। इसी भांति एम.एड. प्रशिक्षण-प्राप्त शिक्षकों को भी अधिक वेतन-वृद्धियां दी जायं।"[3]

"१० से १५% योग्य प्रशिक्षित प्राथमिक शिक्षकों की पदोन्नति उच्च माध्यमिक विद्यालय के प्रधानाध्यापक या विद्यालय निरीक्षक / जिला शिक्षा अधिकारी के पदो पर की जानी चाहिए। इसी भांति इतने ही प्रतिशत उच्च स्तर का कार्य करने वाले प्रशिक्षित स्नातकों को अधिस्नातकों की वेतन-शृंखला दी जानी चाहिए।'''ऐसी व्यवस्था की जाय कि शाला-शिक्षक महाविद्यालय या विश्वविद्यालय में अध्यापन सकें, जो शाला-शिक्षक उच्च स्तर का शोध-कार्य कर रहे हों तो विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोग उन्हें उदारतापूर्वक आर्थिक सहायता प्रदान करे।''''अग्रिम वेतन-वृद्धियों की ऐसी व्यवस्था की जाय कि चोटी के ५% शिक्षक वेतनमान के उच्चतम स्तर पर १० वर्ष में तथा उनसे अगले ५% शिक्षक वेतनमान के उच्चतम स्तर पर १५ वर्ष में पहुँच जायें।''' महाविद्यालयों में कार्यरत किसी महत्त्वपूर्ण उच्च स्तर का कार्य करने वाले प्राध्यापक की अब तक कोई पदोन्नति इसलिए नहीं हुई कि वहां उच्च वेतनमान का कोई पद नहीं था तो उनको पदोन्नति देने के लिए ऐसे पदों का सृजन किया जाय तथा ज्योंही कोई स्थायी पद रिक्त हो तो उनको उन पदों पर नियुक्त किया जाय। ऐसा करने के लिए विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान

आयोग की स्वीकृति प्राप्त करली जाय। ऐसी व्यवस्था CSIR तथा ICAR में पूर्व से ही प्रचलित है।"'रूस में हुए एक शोध से पता लगता है कि वहां शिक्षकों के वेतनमान इतने अच्छे हैं कि देश के उच्च श्रेणी में उच्च शिक्षा-प्राप्त व्यक्ति काफी संख्या में अध्यापन-कार्य करते हैं। वहां विश्वविद्यालय तथा शाला-शिक्षक के पारिश्रमिक में अन्तर भी बहुत कम है।"[4]

"शिक्षण जैसे सृजनात्मक कार्य में लगे सही व्यक्तियों को इस व्यवसाय में रोका जा सके, इसके लिए उन्हें व्यावसायिक विकास के उपयुक्त अवसर तथा उत्तम सेवा-स्थितियां एवं शर्तें दी जानी चाहिए।"" विचार-गोष्ठियों, ग्रीष्मकालीन संस्थान, पुस्तकें क्रय करने के लिए या शोध-कार्य के लिए उदार अनुदान तथा अध्ययन-सुविधायें प्रदान करके, उपयुक्त व्यक्तियों को उच्च पद सुलभ करके उनके व्यावसायिक विकास को अग्रसर किया जा सकता है।"[5]

महत्वपूर्ण यह है कि इन अनुशंसाओं का कितनी मात्रा में तथा किस रूप में किन-किन राज्यों में उपयोग किया जाता है ?

SUMMARY

PROMOTION—BY MERIT OR SENIORITY ?

–Jamana Lal Bayati

Fair and ample chances of promotion for teachers are essential to attract and keep latent As basis of promotion, both seniority and merit have their merits and demerits. Seniority is easier of determination, promises fair chance to all, eliminates political influence and recognises the value of experience But it sacrifices ability at the altar of years.

Merit on the other hand encourages and recognises ability, efficiency, talent and character. But these intangibles are difficult of measurement

Hence the best formula seems to consist in promotion by merit alone to the higher rungs, Merit Cum-Seniority to the middle-rungs and Seniority-Cum-Merit to the lower-rungs of the Service.

– *M C S*

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readers' views	पत्रांश

documents	दस्तावेज
reviews	समीक्षा
readers' views	पत्राक्ष

दस्तावेज़ | documents

महत्वपूर्ण प्रतिवेदनों व दस्तावेज़ों का सार संक्षेप

Important reports and documents in brief

Planning the Gandhian Way

Report of the Convention on University Courses and Gandhian Thought

(March 20 : 21 . 22 :: 1970)

Convened by the Saurashtra University, Rajkot

Preamble

The Convention accepts Non-Violence and Truth as basic values for the reconstruction of University Education as for all education. The Convention meant by Non-Violence and Truth among other things that authoritarian power, centralisation and standardisation in thinking, lack of co-operation, absence of mutual understanding, partisan attitude, communalism, pomp and worship of splendour and violence in any shape would not find favour in University Education.

I. Objectives

The following should be the objectives of University Education :

(i) to seek and cultivate new knowledge, to engage vigorously and fearlessly in the pursuit of Truth and to interpret old knowledge and beliefs in the light of new needs and discoveries,

(ii) to enable [illegible] to appreciate and understand [illegible] and social [illegible] and to understand [illegible] aspirations and ideals and [illegible] them confront the [illegible]

(iii) to provide the [illegible] leadership [illegible] help them to develop [illegible] to the full [illegible] [illegible] mind and [illegible] attitudes and [illegible] [illegible]

(iv) to [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] agriculture [illegible]

and technology and various other professions who will also be cultivated individuals imbued with sense of social purpose;

(v) to enable youths to realise *national aspirations and individual* potentialities;

(vi) to provide youths with such education as would be related to life;

(vii) to provide opportunities to youths for national and social service.

2. Curriculum

The following should be the principles of curriculum construction :

(i) Curriculum should not merely deal with factual information but should develop broad interests, appreciations, healthy attitudes and capacity for clear thinking. The method of work should be considered as important as the course content so that the two can be properly balanced.

(ii) Curriculum should provide, in addition to special disciplines, inter-disciplinary courses.

(iii) Curriculum should provide some practical work related to the community and should involve some commitment to the community.

(iv) The medium of education must always be the mother-tongue.

(v) Curriculum should be flexible and research-oriented.

3. Organisation and administration

(i) The University organisation and administration should be concerned with creation of an environment of freedom for students and teachers. The University should be wedded to independent thinking and free expression.

(ii) Decentralisation of authority should be one of the principles of administration. All decision *making should crystallise* from corporate thinking and co-operative participation.

(iii) Institutions of large size always dilute the relationship between the teacher and the taught. Therefore the strength of the institutions should be limited to such numbers as would facilitate intimate contacts between students and the staff and the local community.

(iv) The physical set-up should be in consonance with the local environments. It would be a national catastrophe to barter away simplicity in physical settings for tinsel splendour.

(v) University may explore methods of elections other than secret ballet such as consensus, circulation etc. which would reduce tension.

4. Programmes

In the light of objectives and principles of curriculum the following programmes are suggested:

(a) Work Experience : Work experience has now been accepted as a well established educational principle which should form an integral part of the curriculum of education from the primary to the university. Work experience may be defined as socially useful productive manual work and it implies educational planning, preparation, execution, evaluation and the creation of proper attitude to the dignity of labour. In the primary and secondary grades suitable pro-

ductive crafts could be introduced, in addition to providing experience in farm factories and workshops. But the real difficulty lies at the university stage where with the growing needs of knowledge, the paucity of time and growing numbers of scholars, it may be difficult to provide for productive work. But productive work experience can be fitted into the faculties of agriculture, engineering, medicine etc to the fullest meaning of the term. Students may work systematically in farm, fields and orchards like workers producing grain, vegetables and fruits. The principle of "Svavalamban" can be practised to a considerably high degree. The engineering students should be able to handle all kinds of machines, repair, make and remodel them and be trained in every aspect of mechanical work from the beginning to the end. Work experience for the medicine students may consist of clinical service in the college clinic for the neighbourhood, attending the people's ailments, carrying out practical sanitation and health projects in selected villages with reference to actual needs, preparation of simple remedies for distribution etc. Work experience for the students off the faculties of science, commerce, economics, sociology and other humanities may consist of studies of the neighbourhood, and with the co-operation of the local community carrying out developmental projects.

(b) Community living : Nai Talim stresses the importance of community life and living in educational institutions as the medium of education. The Kothari Education Commission recommended that the tradition of community living established in basic schools should be introduced in all schools and colleges as a medium of education. Educationists are convinced that the qualities of love, neighbourliness, mutual understanding and self-discipline and the programmes of the development of social competence by distribution of responsibility and provision of numerous outlets for adolescent aspirations create a helpful, healthy ethos for sound education. In this context the college should be developed as a real functioning community.

(c) Community/Social Service : The Kothari Education Commission recommended that the educational institutions should participate in meaningful programmes of community service as an integral part of education. Such participation helps to create a positive attitude towards social service and develops closer ties between the educated and the rest of the people. It also helps in building up amongst students a sense of social purpose, self-confidence and a sense of commitment and participation in community life and of national integration.

The collegian in general feel themselves cut off from the community and have isolated themselves resulting in the attitudes of irresponsibility, apathy and alienation. Gandhiji was definitely of the opinion that "end of all education should be social service." If a student gets an opportunity of rendering services even while he is engaged in his studies, it should not be considered a supersession but a compliment of his education. National-social service should be an

integral part of education and not a mere co-curricular activity.

A real programme of social service implies that the institution goes to the people, makes a study of their needs, analyses and builds an educational programme in co-operation with the community. A programme of social service should activise the community to think for itself. The Sociology, Economics, Politics and other faculties of the university have an eminent opportunity to carry on work of this kind by studying the village community's problems and its needs. In this connection, it should be stressed that those who participate in this social service should "go straight to the village, put ideals into practice through personal example. If a person goes to the village with the city mentality and wants to live a city life, he would be doing a disservice to the community and to himself."

(d) Hostel life : All residential hostels should be organised as educational communities giving importance to dignity of labour, mutual co-operation and understanding, corporate thinking and self-discipline.

(e) Religious and moral education : Gandhiji desired that, as an essential part of the training of the young, religious education should be imparted. The student should study the scriptures of one's own religion and of other religions for developing better understanding. Reverence for all religions should be instilled into the mind of the pupil. Since religion in its essence is truth and ahimsa, anything that promotes the practice of these virtues is a means for religious education. Gandhiji was convinced that the training of the heart and spirit depends entirely upon the life and character of the teacher.

Our schools and colleges should not only impart the basic principles of all religions in a spirit of reverence and create a religious atmosphere in the institutions. Sarvadharma worship, silent prayer and meditation, study and discussion of problems which contribute to contradictions in life; celebrations of festivals of all faiths, philosophical discussions and the study of the lives of mystics and men of vision are a few of the methods which may be employed to create a religious atmosphere. But a factor of great importance for the promotion of a moral atmosphere is the creation of an environment of simplicity and self-discipline in the institutions. The good example of teachers is an efficacious form of religious education.

(f) Teacher-Student relationship: The relationship between teacher and students should be one of mutual respect, freedom and active partnership.

(g) Evaluation : Evaluation should be a continuous process from beginning to the end. The mode of evaluation will have to be diversified and made elastic. Study reports, records of field-work, reports of participation in community activities, of class discussions, charts and performance in academic studies should constitute the basis for evaluation amongst other methods. It should be more of a descriptive and individualistic nature rather than assessing the students'

achievement on percentage basis. College faculties should be free to evolve their own evaluation procedures and techniques on the basis of serious co-operative research work. The existing system of external examination does not fit in with the mode of evaluation suggested above.

5 Conclusion

This Convention does not feel competent to lay down specific items for immediate or remote programme for implementation because any educational programme has to be evolved out of co-operative thinking made by the institution after a detailed study and discussion of the fundamental principles stated above. The immediate programme should therefore be an orientation of members of the staff and of the administration in the light of the principles formulated above. Students can likewise be taken into confidence to discuss principles and the programmes of this new deal in university education.

(i) In this light, we suggest that while working out detailed contents of the various courses, relevant topics from Gandhian or Sarvodaya thought be integrated in the courses.

(ii) It is also suggested that as a background of all learning, students of all the faculties be offered a brief course incorporating in it :

1. understanding of the concepts of Truth and Non-Violence;
2. explanation as to how Truth and Non-Violence pervade all aspects of life; and
3. clarification as to how these concepts can serve as a background of the particular Faculty.

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2. Shri Harbhai Trivedi	– Pro-Vice-Chancellor
3. Shri K. S. Acharlu	– 148/30 Vyali Kaval, Bangalore 3
4 Shri Jyotibhai Desai	– Gandhi Vidyapith, Vedachhi Dist.Surat.
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22. Shri H. M. Joshi – Head, Department of Philosophy, Dharmendra College, Rajkot.

23. Shri V. M. Desai – Registrar, Saurashtra University, Rajkot.

Major Recommendations of the Conference of Directors of Education/Public Instruction held in Delhi on 10 and 11 Aug. 70.

I. Supervision and Instruction

The Conference considered the Report of the Study Group on Supervision and Inspection and made the following recommendations :—

(1) The traditional solutions to the problems of supervision and inspection had proved inadequate to meet the combined challenges of expansion and qualitative improvement. There was also the need to integrate, in a proper manner, the various solutions that were being put forward such as separation of administration from supervision, appointment of subject inspectors, panel inspections, school complexes, etc. To meet this difficulty and complexity of the problem, the Study Group had come forward with a bold and imaginative solution, namely, the creation of a Unit for Inspection and Supervision at the District level which will be headed by the District Education Officer who would be supported by a team of subject specialists on the academic side and a Personal Assistant drawn from the Administrative ranks of the Education Department on the administration and financial side and in whose functioning, all available resources such as training institutions, senior and expert teachers, etc., would be fully utilized. The Conference was of the view that, on the basis of these basic principles, it was possible to evolve a number of patterns which would suit the conditions in each State. It, therefore, recommended that this Scheme should be introduced, as a pilot project, in a few selected Districts. The National Staff College may be requested to work out a detailed

blue-print to be tried out in the selected Districts, in consultation with the State Education Departments concerned. An attempt should be made to introduce this pilot project with effect from beginning of the next academic session.

(2) Another important programme to secure qualitative improvement of supervision and inspection was to upgrade the qualifications of inspecting and supervisory officers and to improve the practices of recruitment, a fairly large proportion being reserved to direct recruits. This reform will have to be accompanied by the introduction of adequate scales of pay.

(3) The quantitative side is equally important. The work load of each inspecting officer may be fixed at 50 units, a unit being defined as a school with a pupil enrolment of 120 and teacher strength of 3 in the case of primary schools and a pupil strength of 500 and a teacher strength of 20 in the case of secondary schools.

(4) The revenue district should preferably be adopted as the unit of educational administration. In the bigger States, this will have to be supplemented by a regional set-up.

(5) There is need for a common designation for the Head of the educational districts. As most of the States appear to have the term 'District Education Officer' already in vogue, there is advantage in using this designation in all the States and Union Territories.

(6) The Conference felt concerned over the declining trend in the expenditure on educational administration which was about 5% of the total expenditure on education in 1946-47 and which now stands only at 2%. The Conference strongly urged upon the State Governments to reverse this trend and to reach the target of 5 per cent by 1975 so that, at least in the structural sense, the Education Departments will have attained the take-off stage in their efforts to cope with the combined problems of rapid expansion and qualitative improvement.

II. Resources Mobilisation

The Conference examined the Report of the Study Group on Resources Mobilisation and made the following recommendations :—

(1) The percentage of Plan expenditure on Education to total Plan expenditure in the States and Union Territories in the Fourth Plan is only 7.8 whereas it was 9.5 in the Second Plan and 10.5 in the Third Plan. The Conference recommended that the percentage of Fourth Plan outlay for Education should at least be the same as in the Third Plan and preferably higher.

2. *The States should progressively* increase their investment in education to the extent of at least 25 per cent of their budget by the end of the Fourth Plan period and strive to reach the mark of 30 per cent within a period of 10 years. The Centre should also progressively raise its allocation for education to at least 8 per cent of its budget.

3. Educational cess may be levied both in rural and urban areas, for the specific purpose of expeditiously fulfilling the Constitutional directive for providing free and compulsory education to children upto the age

of 14, in the manner suggested below :—

(a) In rural areas, educational cess may be levied by the Local Bodies in the form of surcharge at a minimum rate of 20 paise per rupee on land revenue and utilised by them within their own jurisdiction. They may also be authorised to raise voluntarily the surcharge rate beyond the prescribed minimum upto the maximum of 50 paise per rupee. In order to stimulate the use of this authority, a grant-in-aid proportionate to the additional revenues thus raised should be guaranteed by the State on the principle of equalization from area to area, i.e., proportionately larger grants to the poor and backward areas.

(b) In urban areas, educational cess may be levied by the local body on rented property at some minimum obligatory rate with provision of matching grant for additional cess raised voluntarily by the local body beyond the obligatory minimum but within the prescribed maximum. The minimum and maximum rates should be laid down by the State Governments in the light of local circumstances. The matching grant may be on the principle of equalization from area to area.

4. The practice of permitting educational institutions to charge more than the standard tuition fee within the prescribed limits, which is in vogue in some of the States, may be adopted by other States also. However, in order that this may not entail any burden on the poorer sections of the society, the present percentage of freeships in an institution may be raised from 17½ to 33⅓ per cent.

5. The option to charge development/betterment fee, within the ceiling laid down by the Education Department, may be left to institutions beyond the compulsory stage, i.e., at the secondary and college stages.

6. The practice of raising and accepting voluntary donations and contributions for the development of education which is so far confined to private educational institutions should be encouraged to Government institutions also.

7. The institutions may adopt one or more ways of augmenting their resources, namely, by charging higher tuition fee and optional development/betterment fee within the prescribed ceiling and by voluntary donations. The proceeds from these sources should form part of the School Fund.

8. Government may permit the creation of a School Fund for each educational institution-Government as well as Non-Government. The essential features of the School Fund should be as follows :—

(i) The contributions to the School Fund shall in no way be linked with admissions and examinations.

(ii) The proceeds will be utilised for the improvement of educational facilities in the institution concerned and

not for the payment of teachers' salaries and allowances.

(iii) The fund will be managed by a Committee consisting of the parents, teachers and students with the Head of the institution as its Chairman. The specific purpose in terms of the institutional plan for which the funds may be collected and utilised will be indicated by this Committee.

(iv) The amount collected will be kept separately by the institution. It will not be creditable to the treasury, nor will it adversely affect the grant-in-aid of the institution.

9. The rules of recognition by the State Department of Education and affiliation of the universities should be clearly defined and rigorously implemented.

10. The programme of School Improvement Conference, successfully implemented by the State of Tamil Nadu, should be made a people's programme throughout the length and breadth of India.

11. Determined efforts should be made towards economising building costs. Specifications on the basis of minimum cost and maximum space, with permissible flexibility within the minimum cost, should be evolved through research, keeping in view the regional variations. The Building Development Groups in the States should play a useful role in this programme.

12. The existing educational facilities and resources should be utilised to the maximum possible extent. In this context, the following measures, among others, may be tried :—

(i) Use of the double shift system which is now under review by a Committee of the CABE;

(ii) Organisation of part-time and correspondence courses on a large scale for workers and others who cannot be placed in full-time institutions;

(iii) New institutions in unserved areas to be started only if they can be of a viable size;

(iv) Reduction in the cost of building, equipment and apparatus by better designing, large scale production, improvisation, careful handling and proper maintenance;

(v) Modernizing educational administration by introducing flexibility in administrative and financial procedures and provision of adequate decentralisation of authority to avoid wasteful expenditure;

(vi) Longer working days and increase in their number: proper utilization of vacation which may better be called "vacation term'; and

(vii) Greater emphasis on programmes which need more of human talent, dedication and hard work such as modernizing curricula, preparation of textbooks, teaching and learning aids, etc., rather than those involving large financial investment.

13. Utilization studies in depth

(b) State Level: At the State level, there should be an Advisory Committee consisting of the officers who would be concerned with the development of the programme. The State Institutes of Education should also be involved with the programme, right from the start.

(c) Central Level : At the Centre, there should be a special unit in the Ministry of Education and Youth Services to coordinate, promote and evaluate the programme. This should be under a Chief Project Officer. In addition, there should be a Committee of Direction, whose Chairman would be the Secretary, Ministry of Education and Youth Services and the Chief Project Officer, the Member-Secretary. It should have on it the representatives of the N.C.E.R.T., Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, some Education Secretaries, some Directors of Education and some educationists. It should also have penals of experts to advise it with regard to specialised projects. It should draw freely upon the expertise available in the Ministry of Education and Youth Services and the offices under it as well as in the other Central Ministries.

4. Regarding financial arrangements, the Conference agreed that, for the current year, the Central Government may provide assistance for (a) carrying out surveys and studies which would cost about Rs. 40,000 or so in each district and (b) strengthening the Project staff which may involve an expenditure of Rs. 20,000 or so. The total expenditure for covering 14 districts of 14 States for this preliminary work during 1970-71 would be Rs 8.4 lakhs. The Conference was also of the view that after the survey was over, detailed programmes for the introduction of work experience and for vocationalisation will be worked out. The cost of this part of the programme would be fairly heavy and a suitable programme of Central aid for it will have to be devised.

5. The Conference approved the following Plan of Operation :

(i) The Central Government may inform the State Governments to select Pilot Project districts by the *end of August, 1970.*

(ii) The State Governments may be asked to take steps about the appointment of the Project staff by the middle of September, 1970 and undertake bench-mark survey.

(iii) The work of identifying institutions for taking up the programmes of work experience should begin from the middle of October, 1970.

(iv) The occupational survey, required for identifying the emerging and new occupations, in order to design appropriate programmes for training and education, and the survey of the facilities available in schools selected for work experience programme may be completed by the end of February, 1971.

(v) The State Governments should prepare detailed Project Reports by March, 1971 indicating inputs required in terms of manpower,

finances and material, drawing up a scheme of priorities based on an objective study of local conditions, stating the factors leading to maximisation of the benefits from the inputs of given resources, the possibilities of tapping local support etc. The Project Reports should also indicate the objectives to be achieved, the advance action required, the necessary administrative machinery and coordination required and the dovetailing of these in both time and space in order to see that the desired targets are achieved.

(vi) The State Governments, in collaboration with the Central Project Office, should draw up by April, 1971 a detailed Plan of Operation indicating area-wise and year-wise programmes and the financial commitment of various authorities and appointment of responsibilities in terms of various academic and technical services.

(vii) Implementation of Plan operation by June – July, 1971 or next academic session.

B. *Pilot Projects in the field of primary education :* The Conference recommended that, in view of the importance of fulfilling the Constitutional Directive in respect of universal education for all children till they complete the age of 14 years, pilot projects should be introduced, in selected blocks, in which an attempt would be made to enrol every child of the compulsory school age and to retain him/her at school till he/she completes the age of 14 years. From this point of view, four major programmes will have to be emphasized, namely, (a) promoting girls' education; (b) reducing wastage and stagnation; (c) promoting education of children of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections like landless labourers; and (d) part-time and continuation education. The Conference recommended that every State should find the necessary resources from within its own plan, to develop a pilot project in at least one selected block and introduce the programme with effect from the next academic session. The academic guidance and supervision of this programme can be done by the Department of Primary Education under the NCERT at the Centre and the State Institutes of Education at the State level under the broad guidance of the Chief Project Officer.

C. *Other Pilot Projects :* The Conference approved the proposal to set up pilot projects for the following programmes :—

(1) School Complexes;

(2) Institutional Planning;

(3) Intensive Use of Radio Programmes for School Education;

(4) Improving Science Education in rural primary schools;

(5) Strengthening Guidance and Career Advising services for students at the School stage;

The Conference was of the view that these projects also should be implemented in the same Districts where pilot projects are being

introduced under A or B above. The programmes also should be introduced from the beginning of the next academic session.

D. Adult Education : The Conference also recommended that pilot projects for intensive programmes of Adult Education including liquidation of mass illiteracy should be developed without delay. It may be an advantage to develop these projects in the selected districts and especially in areas selected for the implementation of the directive of Article 45 of the Constitution. But they could also be tried out in other areas where conditions may be considered to be more favourable. The machinery to supervise this programme at the Centre has already been created in the form of the Directorate of Adult Education. Appropriate machinery will have to be created for these programmes at the State and District levels.

E. Central Assistance : Central Assistance on a suitable pattern should be made available for pilot projects organised under C and D above.

IV. Visits by Officers of State Education Departments to Different States

The Conference reviewed the progress of the scheme, approved in the last Conference and introduced during the current year, under which visits of officers of State Education Departments are arranged to different States to study significant educational developments. The Conference was of the view that the scheme was useful and had achieved good results. It recommended that the States which have not yet sent their notes on significant developments should do so as early as possible and that the progress of visits to all the States should be completed by the end of the current year.

The Conference felt that the enthusiasm created by the implementation of this programme will have to be kept up, although in a modified form. It therefore recommended that the following three programmes may be developed :

(1) a study in depth of some of the outstanding developments in the States,

(2) studies of important problems by selected teams of Directors of Education/Public Instruction; and

(3) providing opportunities individually to younger officers of the State Education Departments (district level and above) to study important educational developments in other States in depth.

The Conference was of the view that a detailed programme for realising these objectives should be drawn up and implemented by the National Staff College.

V. Educational Statistics

The Conference reviewed the programme of collection and publication of educational statistics. It felt concerned over the long delay in publishing Educational Statistics which is about four years at present. With a view to improving the situation, it recommended that the following three programmes may be explored :—

(1) The designing of a simple and small proforma containing the

basic educational statistics necessary for planning and collecting this information separately from each State in such a manner that the date for any given year would be available within six months of the end of that year;

(2) Trying out a pilot project in one selected district in each State for computerising the educational statistics that are being collected at present on a manual basis; and

(3) The strengthening of the Statistical Organisation at the district level.

The Conference suggested that these problems could be discussed in depth at the forthcoming National Conference on Educational Statistics and detailed notes, of the proposals as finalised, could be circulated to the State Governments. The new programmes finally agreed upon could be brought into force with effect from the statistics of 31st March, 1971.

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कक्षा में परस्पर क्रिया तथा अध्यापक के व्यवहार पर संगोष्ठी का प्रतिवेदन

१८ से २४ जनवरी १९७०

[सेन्टर फोर एडवांस स्टडीज, एम० एस० युनिवर्सिटी, बड़ौदा]

कक्षा में अध्यापक छात्र के व्यवहार में कुछ वांछित उद्देश्य पर आधारित परिवर्तन लाने का प्रयास करता है। छात्रों के व्यवहार में दृष्टिगत परिवर्तन लाने के लिये अन्य शब्दों में छात्र को सिखाने के लिये अध्यापक को अपने विशेष प्रकार के व्यवहार द्वारा एक अनुकूल वातावरण उत्पन्न करने की आवश्यकता पड़ती है। अन्वेषणों से यह सिद्ध हो चुका है कि कक्षा में समन्वयक वातावरण (Integrative Climate) छात्रों में वांछित व्यवहार परिवर्तन के लिये अधिक उपयोगी है। परन्तु भारत के प्रशिक्षण महाविद्यालयों में कक्षा अध्यापन में सुधार लाने के लिये किये जाने वाले निरीक्षण (Observation) में व्यक्तिनिष्ठता (Subjectivity) अधिक होने तथा Feedback की विधियों के अवैज्ञानिक होने के कारण उनके द्वारा शिक्षक के व्यवहार में उचित परिवर्तन लाना सम्भव नहीं हो सका है। क्या वैज्ञानिक ढंग से Observation करने की कोई विधि है? क्या इस Feedback की सहायता से वांछनीय परिवर्तन अध्यापक के व्यवहार में ला सकते हैं? सेन्टर फॉर एडवांस स्टडी इन एज्यूकेशन, फैकल्टी ऑफ एज्यूकेशन एण्ड साइकोलोजी, एम०एस० यूनिवर्सिटी, बड़ौदा में दिनांक १८ जनवरी से २४ जनवरी ७० तक "कक्षा में परस्पर क्रिया तथा अध्यापक व्यवहार" नामक विषय पर एक संगोष्ठी आयोजित की गई। इस संगोष्ठी में भारत के विभिन्न राज्यों के प्रशिक्षण महाविद्यालयों के ४० अध्यापकों ने भाग लिया। इस गोष्ठी के विशेषज्ञों में सेन्टर के अध्यक्ष डॉ. एम.बी. बुच के अतिरिक्त डॉ० उदय पारिख, डॉ० प्रयाग मेहता तथा सेन्टर के अन्तर्गत इस क्षेत्र में पीएच.डी. करने वाले तीन रिसर्च स्कालर थे। डॉ० बुच के अनुसार इस संगोष्ठी का आयोजन चार मूल उद्देश्यों को लेकर किया गया था।

(१) प्रतिभागियों (Participants) को "कक्षा में परस्पर क्रिया" के अर्थ से अवगत कराना।

(२) Observation की एक वैज्ञानिक विधि से अवगत कराना तथा उसके निरीक्षण की क्षमता का विकास करना।

(३) प्रतिभागियों में Objective Observation करने की क्षमता का विकास करना।

(४) प्रतिभागियों को इस क्षेत्र में अनुसंधानात्मक एवम् सुधारात्मक कार्यक्रम तैयार करने में सहायता करना।

संगोष्ठी के प्रथम चरण में विशेषज्ञों ने कक्षा में परस्पर क्रिया के अर्थ पर चर्चा की और बताया कि कक्षा में छात्र तथा अध्यापक के बीच में एक परस्पर क्रिया (Interaction) होती है। अध्यापक छात्रों के साथ व्यवहार करता है जिसका उत्तर छात्र अपने व्यवहार से देता है और इन दोनों के व्यवहार के ढंग से कक्षा में एक विशेष प्रकार का वातावरण उत्पन्न हो जाता है जो छात्रों के सीखने में सहायक अथवा बाधक होता है। अध्यापक के कक्षा में किये जाने वाले व्यवहार दो प्रकार के होते हैं एक प्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार Dominative Behaviour भी कहा जा सकता है, दूसरे प्रकार का व्यवहार है अप्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार जिसको Integrative Behaviour भी कहा जा सकता है। परीक्षणों द्वारा यह सिद्ध हो चुका है कि Integrative Behaviour छात्रों के ज्ञानार्जन एवं चरित्र के विकास में अधिक सहायक होता है। अध्यापक को कक्षा में अप्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार को प्रयोग करने का अधिक प्रयास करना चाहिये। इसके लिये आवश्यक है कि अध्यापक को अप्रत्यक्ष प्रभाव डालने के लिये प्रशिक्षण दिया जाय। आज हम प्रशिक्षण महाविद्यालयों में Practice Teaching के द्वारा इस दिशा में कुछ प्रयास करते हैं। छात्र अध्यापक अपने पाठ का पूर्व निर्धारण करते है और उसके पश्चात् कक्षा में उनका Supervision किया जाता है और सुपरवाइजर पाठ के सुधार के लिये कुछ सुझाव देते हैं और छात्र अध्यापक से उनके अनुकूल अपने व्यवहार में परिवर्तन लाने की आशा की जाती है। परन्तु प्रभावशाली परिणाम देखने को नहीं मिलते इसका एक मात्र कारण है Observation का अवैज्ञानिक एवं Subjective होना।

Observation की लगभग २६ वैज्ञानिक विधियां हैं जिनको Observation के उद्देश्य के आधार पर प्रयोग किया जाता है। यदि कक्षा में होने वाले शाब्दिक आदान-प्रदान का मापन करने का उद्देश्य हो तो फलेण्डर्स द्वारा निर्मित केटेगरीज का उपयोग सबसे अधिक वैज्ञानिक एवं वस्तुनिष्ठ होने के साथ ही बहुत ही सरल है। फलेण्डर्स की केटेगरीज अध्यापक वार्ता से सम्बधित हैं जिनमें से चार उसके अप्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार को तथा तीन उसके प्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार को मापने के लिए हैं। दो केटेगरीज छात्र वार्ता को मापने के लिये हैं जिनमें से एक केवल साधारण उत्तर और दूसरी छात्र द्वारा Initiation को वर्गीकृत करने के लिये है। अन्तिम केटेगरी स्तब्धता या गड़बड़ के लिये है।

फलेण्डर्स सिस्टम का सैद्धान्तिक परिचय देने के पश्चात् प्रतिभागियों को कक्षा में होने वाली घटनाओं (events) को दस श्रेणियों में वर्गीकृत करने तथा प्रत्येक तीन सैकण्ड में एक या दो घटनाओं (events) को रेकार्ड करने का व्यावहारिक अभ्यास कराया गया। Role Play के माध्यम से प्रारम्भिक अभ्यास देने के पश्चात् प्रतिभागियों का वास्तविक कक्षा में Observation करने तथा घटनाओं का रेकार्ड तैयार करने का अभ्यास कराया गया।

कक्षा में होने वाली घटनाओं का रेकार्ड लेने के पश्चात् उनके आधार पर मैट्रिक्स (Matrix) तैयार करने का भी अभ्यास दिया गया। मैट्रिक्स तैयार करने के पश्चात् उसकी व्याख्या करना भी बताया गया जो इस प्रशिक्षण का सबसे अधिक रुचिपूर्ण एवं उपयोगी भाग था। Matrix से निम्नलिखित महत्वपूर्ण सूचनाएं अध्यापक द्वारा कक्षा में किये जाने वाले व्यवहार के बारे में प्राप्त की जा सकती हैं।

(१) कक्षा अध्यापन के कुल समय में से कितने समय तक अध्यापक ने वार्ता की अथवा प्रत्यक्ष व्यवहार किया।

(२) कितने समय तक छात्रों को बोलने का अवसर प्रदान किया गया।

(३) कितने समय तक कक्षा में स्तब्धता या गड़बड़ जैसी स्थिति रही।

(४) अध्यापक के Integrative Behaviour (जिसमे अध्यापक छात्रों की भावनाओं को स्वीकार करता है, उनके विचारों को स्वीकार करता है और उनके उत्तरों के लिये उनकी प्रशंसा करता है) का उसके Dominative Behaviour (जिसमे अध्यापक छात्रों को आदेश देता है या उनके व्यवहार की आलोचना करता है) से अनुपात क्या है ?

(५) अध्यापक विषय वस्तु का विकास करने में कितना छात्रों का सहयोग प्राप्त करता है और कितना वह स्वयम् करता है। मेट्रिक्स की व्याख्या करने के पश्चात् अध्यापक को अपने व्यवहार में सुधार करने के कुछ मूल सुझाव दिये जा सकते हैं।

इसके पश्चात् प्रतिभागियों को अपने Observation (परिवेक्षण) की विश्वसनीयता (Reliability) ज्ञात करने की विधि से अवगत कराया गया। संगोष्ठी के द्वितीय चरण मे Classroom Interaction के क्षेत्र से सम्बन्धित निम्नलिखित समस्याओं पर विचार करने के लिये तीन उप समितियों का गठन किया जिन्होंने अपने अतिरिक्त समय में इन समस्याओं से सम्बन्धित अध्ययन सामग्री का अवलोकन करके और अपने सदस्यो मे आपसी विचार विमर्श करके अपने प्रतिवेदन सदन के समक्ष रखे।

(१) Classroom Interaction Analysis का पूर्व सेवा प्रशिक्षण (Pre Service Trg.) मे उपयोग एव महत्व।

(२) Classroom Interaction Analysis का सेवारत प्रशिक्षण (Inservice Trg.) में उपयोग एवं कार्यक्रम।

(३) Classroom Interaction Analysis के क्षेत्र में सम्भावित शोध समस्याओं की सूची तैयार करना।

प्रथम उपसमिति ने अपने प्रतिवेदन मे बताया कि प्रशिक्षण महाविद्यालय में Observation एव Feedback की प्रचलित विधियों में इस विद्या का समावेश एक महत्वपूर्ण योगदान होगा। प्रतिवेदन में वे तरीके भी सुझाए गये जिनके द्वारा इस विद्या का प्रभावशाली उपयोग हो सकता है।

द्वितीय उपसमिति ने बताया कि सेवा-प्रसार विभागों के कार्यक्रमों में इस विद्या का समावेश करके सेवारत अध्यापकों मे वांछित व्यवहार परिवर्तन लाया जा सकता है। उपसमिति ने कुछ ठोस कार्यक्रम भी रखे जिनके संचालन से कुछ प्रभावशाली परिवर्तन लाये जा सकते हैं।

तृतीय उपसमिति के प्रतिवेदन में सेन्टर द्वारा इस क्षेत्र में कार्य करने वाले व्यक्तियों के साथ सहयोग करने की कुछ महत्वपूर्ण सिफारिशें की गई। प्रतिवेदन के अन्त में इस विद्या से सम्बन्धित कुछ महत्वपूर्ण समस्याओं पर विभिन्न स्तरों पर शीघ्र कार्य करने हेतु एक सूची तैयार की गई जिनके विधिवत कई क्रम कार्य रूप में लाने पर इस क्षेत्र के सभी महत्वपूर्ण पहलुओं पर अच्छे आंकड़े तथा तथ्य उपलब्ध हो सकते हैं जिनके संकलन से शिक्षण के सिद्धान्त (Theory of Instruction) का निर्माण करके आनेवाले समय मे अध्यापकों को सहायता मिलेगी और हम अपने अध्यापन का गुणात्मक सुधार भी कर सकेंगे।

संगोष्ठी के अन्त में सभी प्रतिभागियों ने इस क्षेत्र मे किये जानेवाले अपने भावी कार्यक्रम की रूपरेखा प्रस्तुत की।

डॉ० बुच ने प्रतिभागियों के समक्ष

Training The English Teachers

Teachers of English as a Second Language: Their training and preparation. Edited by G. E. Perren. Cambridge University Press in association with ETIC, London, 1968. 233 p.

This is a symposium of nine specially written contributions by British experts. It is partly in the form of reports on successful teacher-training projects (MELT campaign in India, for instance) and partly in the form of general discussion of topics such as 'The literary element in teacher education' and 'Improving the teacher's own English'. All the contributors are well-known ELT experts, and in their writings they speak from their own experience in many parts of the world. The book brings together their ideas and shared attitude without, however, advocating any single approach about how best to train teachers.

The book deals with varied problems of training teachers of English who have widely different backgrounds. Each author deals with a particular aspect of the preparation of teachers of which he himself has some specialized knowledge or experience. Although the contributions deal with many diffe- problems, there is a considera- amount of overlapping.

In the opening chapter J. A. Bright writes about his work in the Sudan and Uganda. His essentially practical approach to teacher training has much that can be emulated in our country. He has some refreshing things to say on the all-important problems of relating theory to practice. He believes that pupil-teachers should be involved directly ("in the process of applying the theory to particular teaching situations". H.A. Cartlidge deals with the neglected field of training of teachers of adults. Its relevance to our country can hardly be overlooked. The English teaching situation in India has changed very fast in the last five years. The day is not far off when we may have to teach beginners' English to boys and girls in their late adolescence. Besides, there will be a demand for specialist English for adult learners. New techniques will surely have to be developed to deal with these situations. Cartlidge's views on these matters are worth pondering over. Pitt Corder breaks new ground in suggesting a programme for advanced work for the training of teacher-trainers and educational administrators—the kind of work

that the Central Institute of English has been doing at Hyderabad. In his programme Pitt Corder would include theoretical, descriptive and practical studies, a research exercise and a study of existing teaching materials.

W. R. Lee in his very comprehensive article discusses the problem of organizing training programmes for overseas teachers of English in British universities. He thinks that teachers from many different countries who teach at different levels can benefit from training together. He points out the benefits of an English-speaking social environment for improving their English. As for the content of the training programme, Lee will have it 'centred on the classroom'. Theoretical studies will be included in the programme, but they will not be central to it. The study of linguistics is conceded only a minor place. Lee suggests that "The linguist cannot be allowed to sit on a throne and king it absurdly over everyone else; if he is there he should abdicate, and then drop in regularly as a welcome guest". In concluding the article Lee makes a forceful plea for raising the status of "the teaching of English as a foreign language".

Perren considers the problems of teacher-training in several parts of the world, but he seems to have mainly East Africa in mind, where English is being used as a medium of instruction for general, vocational and professional subjects His views and suggestions are very relevant to our English medium schools.

D.A. Smith's report on in-service training for teachers of English in developing countries is, without doubt, of the greatest interest to us. Though he also draws on his previous experience in East Africa, his article is concerned with the situation and problems of English Language teaching in India in the late fiftees and sixtees. In his comparison of the situations in East Africa and India, India comes out second best. He thinks that in India "the creation of the right climate of opinion ■ a task of overriding importance for several years before major reforms can even start." In contrast he believes in African countries official thinking has long been influenced by the modern principles of language-teaching and textbook construction. Among his suggestions for improving the teacher-training programme in our training institutions, is the inclusion of a remedial English element "In institutions where English is not the medium, one necessity is an initial crash remedial course in English for as much as two-thirds of the timetable for three months, followed by perhaps seven hours of English ■ week thereafter with at least as much time given to English usage as to English-teaching methodology, with much effort to ensure that the young teacher is completely at home with the material he has to teach. All too common is the teacher who has passed his examination in the *teaching* of English but who stands in front of a class, holds up a pencil and says, 'Is this a pencil green ?'." Smith is of the view that existing training is largely a waste of time because it is far too academic. One would agree with Smith's conclusion, but for a different reason The usual English methods courses

are not really academic in the proper sense of the word; they are thin, and theoretical in the sense of being non-practical. Smith rightly lays great store by demonstration work by the lecturers. "As a general rule an ounce of demonstration is worth a pound of explanation, provided it is skilled and successful demonstration." He would get the lecturers to acquire the skill through regular teaching in "a local school so that they speak from practical experience and their demonstration lessons are not show-set pieces but example of competent day-to-day English periods."

Smith writes at some length about the MELT campaign in Madras, the problems and prospects of the various English language teaching institutes in India, and sums up his discussion by quoting from the Report of the Second Conference of Directors and Directors of Studies of ELTI's held in Hyderabad in November 1965.

The articles by A. S. Hornby, Bruce Pattison and Peter Strevens deal with specific aspects of the teacher training programme. Hornby's views on teaching practice for non-graduate teachers in Asia and Africa and the Middle East are worth listening to. He writes with authority about the selection, organization and presentation of new materials to a class. Bruce Pattison's views on the role of literature in teacher training are equally authoritative and convincing. He makes a case for a liberal and humane conception of English in teacher education, broad-based training in both English language and literature. "There is no reason why language and literature should not be studied together, each by its own methods, but mutually enlightening. But in teacher education they have to be placed in an educational context. The supply of people who can do this is limited. To increase their number would do more than anything else to raise the standard of English where it is a second language." Peter Strevens' paper deals with the improvement of the individual teacher's performance in the English language by means of organized courses in Britain. He discusses his subject under the following main headings: English, what it means and ought to mean for the teacher; the expectations and frustrations of those teachers who go to Britain for courses; the orientation of existing courses, and suggestions for their improvement; followed by a section dealing with language laboratory techniques.

Teachers of English as a Second Language is comprehensive in its coverage of topics, and the quality of discussions is uniformly high. It has succeeded in bringing together the gist of British thinking and experience on the training of teachers of English in the Commonwealth countries. Teacher-trainers in training institutions and ELTI's, and policy makers at all levels should find it an extremely valuable book.

R. N. Ghosh.

Pickering, George. **The Challenge to Education.** Middlesex, England: Penguin Books Ltd., 1969, Pp. 153.

Sir George Pickering, a Fellow of the Royal Society, an eminent doctor, a humanist, a member of Hebdomadal Council of Oxford University and a distinguished scholar,

has served on the University Grants Committee from 1944 to 1954, when he became intensely interested in education. The Challenge to Education is a series of questions, conjectures, and propositions presented in the form of an argument. Throughout Pickering's views are basically sound and of considerable value because they do not essentially support the conventional wisdom regarding the position of education in the United Kingdom. The essence of the argument is what he writes himself in the preface (p. 8) :

> "Britain is, in fact, out of date. The more I have thought of this, the more I have become convinced that the fault lies in our educational system, the most powerful weapon which society has to ensure that its people are equipped with the tools to do their job...... The modernisation of Britain must begin by reforming the pattern of education to provide for the needs of the next generation – not the problems of yesterday, but for those of today and tomorrow."

Pickering's treatment of the role of education is basically straightforward, thoughtful and clearly organised. He believes with others and particularly with what Cole S. Brembeck observed at the University of Peshawar : "There is no magic in education, except as we give it magic. Education can heal or kill, bind up or tear apart, lift or deprave. This is an instrument that can be used for good or evil. We must learn to use it well."

A persistent theme running throughout this book concerns the importance of education in the betterment of society. It is to this effect, that the author synopsizes the use of education by various societies, who used this great power of education intelligently and with precision. After going through 147 pages of this book the careful and attentive reader will surely be convinced that the prescient observations of Pickering about the need for educational revolution to adapt it to what Whitehead said "the fundamental change in the intellectual outlook of human society," are weighty and relevant. Even on the last page he compares education with medicine indicating that "good medicine recognizes early symptoms and signs and acts to prevent danger," eventually showing his indomitable faith in what Perkins wrote : "Every civilized society tends to develop institutions which will enable it to acquire, digest and advance knowledge relevant to the tasks which, it is thought, will confront it in future." Pickering in admirably objective and realistic way proposes that the "society has the right, indeed the duty, to demand that the pattern of education provided by the state for its citizens shall prepare them for problems and tasks of today and tomorrow. Neglect of this elementary principle is an important factor in Britain's decline as a world power and her recurrent financial crises of the last twenty years. Until this principle is recognised and acted upon, all talk of the modernisation of Britain is idle and empty."

The author, though not a pedagogue, has evidently struggled to comprehend relevant concepts (of course not difficult) about learning,

play, individuality and adult education. But to this reviewer, intensely interesting and attractive thing about play was, the presentation by Pickering the assertion of Konard Lorenz that he made in the Royal Society meeting on ritualised behaviour in animals and in man, suggesting that scientific research was a continuation of play into adult life. In addition, he quotes Locke, Rousseau, Basedow, Comenius, Seguin, Pavlov, Galton, Watson and Livingstone to prove his various points in the second chapter.

Although a wealth of information is presented, some of which is both old and new, the main asset of the chapter on "the function and purpose of education," is the presentation of the curious controversy about teaching and research. Pickering's brilliant synthesis of information and judgements is illustrated in his provocative comments on the interdependence of teaching and research : "Scientific research is disciplined curiosity; it is the surest protection against pedantry. From the point of view of institutions of higher education, the case for scientific research is not that its results are useful, as they are to society, but that it keeps the faculty intellectually alive. *It is most effective antidote to intellectual death.*" He also finds defects in the courses of study (curriculum) which do not help the creative people to pursue their lonely and rebellious destinies.

An astute analysis of creativity and pedantry in chapter six offers eloquent and sensible ideas which have a lasting effect on the reader. "Teachers age, and in aging become more rigid in thought and behaviour; they have a vested interest in their own subject and its prestige and in preserving the *status quo*. Hence, the institutions which are governed by them in their old age tend to become stereotyped in the subject-matter which they present, in the manner of presenting it, and exacting in the form in which the pupil must present it to satisfy his examiners." Pickering presents his case with numerous examples, that education and educational institutions necessarily do not potentiate the creative functioning. He believes that the educational system with its emphasis on over-specialisation, destroys curiosity and initiative and curtails freedom of the individual to develop himself.

In an another chapter, he exactly feels like Torrance that cultures have collapsed because of the failure to utilize "intelligent, imaginative methods for solving their problems." How realistic and practical Pickering's views are, will be clear by what he says : "The main hopes of a country like Britain must be centred on its clever children." And besides, he is in favour of starting graduate schools in the U. K. on American pattern and that "would be the final stage in the gradual rise of the meritocracy."

Those persons who still think that the major universities in U. K. (don't you think of Oxford and Cambridge?) have spontaneity and freshness may be shocked by this book; others may be alternatively amused and depressed. They are just "pleasant places for young gentlemen, while dons slept quietly behind their ancient status...designed to resist change. The British

universities have either not seen, or not heeded, the needs of society as Harvard and Princeton clearly have" (p. 116) Pickering tells more and tells it with more insight that to keep away universities from social change may result in profound loss to the nation; they need to change keeping in view the educational needs of today and tomorrow.

The last chapter may show that the book is not merely informative but prescriptive as well. Writing in a style that is readable and free of technical verbiage, the author skilfully describes and analyses some ways to refashion the educational system in order to ensure that the education provided by the schools and universities is suitable to the needs of today and tomorrow. His challenging and exciting statement can be true for any country in the world that : "It is education alone that can modernize Britain, restore to her the moral and material resources to lead her Commonwealth and make her voice once more heard in the councils of the world ... Any old education is just not good enough, in the same way as any old medicine will not make a sick patient well."

Most of all, perhaps, the successful feature of the work is its personal viewpoint : the author in his role as a concerned person. He in this book, like P. M. S. Blackett, has shown the courage to indict the British educational system and its universities as failing to respond to the changing systems. The book is educationally relevant, tightly written and well argued which made the reviewer of *The Times Literary Supplement* to observe that the book is "possibly one of the most significant in education at the moment".

—M. K. Raina

Light Luggage by V. V. John, Pearl Publications, Bombay. Rs. 3 50, pp. 160.

Shri V. V. John, who is a well-known educationist, is now the Vice-chancellor of Jodhpur University. What is probably not so well-known is that he is also a great humorist and a very amiable personality.

Here is a collection of 44 of his delightful articles that had appeared earlier in some of the papers and magazines. Shri John is a great scholar who carries his scholarship lightly over his shoulders, but it keeps filtering throughout the essays with effortless ease. There are echoes from well-known poets and other writers.

There are observations on not having a sense of humour on keeping a diary, on bed-side reading, on becoming a writer, on words, on consulting dictionaries and encyclopedias and so on and so forth. He touches on the apparently trivial and insignificant objects and habits that would escape the attention of a highbrow. And the touch is always harmless and light. He does not attack human frailties, but rather, with his tongue in his cheeks, holds a brief for them. All the articles (except the second) smack of light-hearted hilarity and sparkling wit The style is charming and reminds one of G. K. Chesterton. The language is chaste and crisp in sharp contrast to that used by some more well-known writers

The printing and get-up are excellent, though the paper could have been slightly better. The

publishers ought to be congratulated for adding this bright little volume to Indo-Anglian literature. The book is without a preface, and is dedicated to his wife, for reasons best-known to him. Shri John continues to contribute such essays to *The Times of India* under the pseudonym 'Jacques.' —D. N. Mathur

Education in Ceylon Before and After Independence by J. E. Jayasuriya, Colombo: Associated Educational Publishers, 1969 Pp. 218 Rs. 24.00 or Shillings 30.00.

This book is a case study of education in Ceylon, an emerging Asian nation, which was under the British rule from 1796 to 1947 It presents a systematic perceptive analysis of the important trends and salient features in primary and secondary education in Ceylon during the period 1939-1968. As Ceylon achieved independence in 1948, it primarily highlights some major achievements and failures in the selected fields during the period before and after independence.

The present book has amply succeeded in pinpointing the ticklish problems, in identifying the main achievements and in bringing into sharp focus the significant educational issues. The author deserves credit for describing and discussing threadbare some prevalent evil tendencies (e.g. inequality in educational opportunity) which are detrimental to education in Ceylon.

This 210 paged book has fifteen chapters arranged in four sections which describe among others the following aspects of Ceylonese educational system: Historical Development; Denominational schools and the Government; Language in Education; Religion in school; Examination; Teacher Education; Adult Education and Politics, Bureaucracy and Totalitarianism in Education. There are a good many useful chapters — some descriptive and others critically evaluative.

The book, there is no doubt, possesses certain distinct attributes. It is clearly and concisely written. It provides uptodate information, at times lucid details and frequently stimulating comments. It outlines the difficulties faced by the Ceylonese educators but does not prescribe solutions. It provokes thinking and stimulates sober reflection on the problems of education in Ceylon besides opening up many avenues for scientific and systematic studies in the area of sociology of education.

The author has, perhaps, forgotten to give a select bibliography on Education in Ceylon, a topic on which there is a paucity of readily available material. However, a glossary of terms appended to the book facilitates understanding the particular way some common English terms are used by the author.

This book can, unhesitatingly, be recommended for students specializing in comparative education and for persons interested in the British Colonial history in general and Education in Asia in particular. Furthermore it may, hopefully, prove useful to those concerned with educational problems of developing countries.

The present reviewer thinks that the forthcoming publication (as stated in the Preface) of Professor Jayasuriya on University education in Ceylon will keep up the trail blazed by the present puplication.

The author deserves appreciation for his valuable contribution.

—S. P. Ahluwalia

A Reference Grammar of Kashmiri: by Braj B Kachru, Urbana: Department of Linguistics, University of Illinois, 1960. xxv, 416 pp, Appendix, Glossary, Indices, n/p

This book is an outgrowth of materials prepared for a course given at the University of Illinois in the summer of 1967. It was perhaps the first such course offered by a Western institution. Lack of attention to the Kashmiri language, despite the critical political importance of Kashmir, has resulted in an acute shortage of materials, either linguistic or pedagogical. The present volume thus fills a long-felt need and the author is to be warmly congratulated.

While Dr. Kachru's work has admittedly been undertaken primarily for pedagogical purposes, it has also touched upon many interesting points of scholarly importance. The 48-page long introducion is a fine piece of scholarship, giving a brief survey of the background of the language and the linguistic region, both historically and synchronically. It is fully documented. A part of this chapter is devoted to a description of the traditionally-used script, Sharada, and of Devanagari.

The remainder of the volume follows the usual organization of such a work, namely phonetics and phonology, word formation, word classes, noun phrases, verb phrases, adverbial phrases and sentence types. The main body of the book is followed by an appendix giving a partial list of compound verbs, bilingual glossaries, bibliography, and indices.

While I have nothing but congratulations for the author, I would like to make a few remarks regarding some points in which, in my opinion, his book could be made even more useful. Firstly, regarding the orthography of Kashmiri: it may be true that traditionally Kashmiri was written in Sharada script, and that today some Hindus use Devanagari while others, like the author, may find some use in adopting the Roman script. However, it should not be forgotten that the majority of Kashmiris today employ the Perso-Arabic script, and in this context it would certainly have been useful to have given an account of that script as it is employed for the Kashmiri language.

Secondly, while a lengthy account is given about the controversy regarding Kashmiri's place in the sub-continental linguistic arena, Dr. Kachru appears to be reluctant to take his own stand on this issue. It would have been an illuminating conclusion to his review of the literature on this subject if he had made known his own views.

The literary heritage of Kashmir has been touched on only briefly in a single page, followed by a useful bibliography. While an extensive coverage of Kashmiri literature is of course not feasible in a work of this kind, a somewhat more detailed discussion would have been valuable for the student to whom this book is an introduction to the Kashmiri language. Finally, the very brief section on adverbial phrases is something of a disappointment. The author's promise to handle this complex area in a later detailed study is welcomed.

—Ved Prakash Vatuk

BOOKS

New English Work Book (*Introductory Books*-First and Second; and Books No. 1 to 8) by Ronald Ridout and Michael Vodders, Oxford University Press, Oxford House, Apollo Bunder, Bombay 1.

पांव में धरत वाले, लेखक यादवेन्द्र शर्मा "चन्द्र", प्रतिमा प्रकाशन प्लाट-To 121, शहीद स्मारक के पास, मानोत हाउस के सामने, जयपुर

पाकिस्तान (देश और निवासी 6), ले० हंसराज रहबर; **बंगाल** (भारत दर्शन माला-4), ले० हंसकुमार तिवारी; **बर्मा** (देश और निवासी-5), ले० आनन्द जैन; **भीतर का घाव**, ले० डॉ० देवराज; **मेरी प्रिय कहानियां**, ले० उपेन्द्रनाथ अश्क; **यादों की घाटियाँ**, ले० मार्क ट्वेन; **मन क्यों उदास है**, ले० विमल मित्र; **जेबकतरे**, ले० अमृता प्रीतम; **मेरी प्रिय कहानियां**, ले० आचार्य चतुरसेन; **भाषा अपनी भाव पराए**, ले० बच्चन; **प्यास पकड़ी हो गई**, ले० रामनिवास जाडू; **मैसूर** (भारत दर्शन), ले० बालशौरि रेड्डी; **हिमाचल प्रदेश** (भारत दर्शन), ले० विराज (सभी राजपाल एण्ड सन्ज, कश्मीरी गेट, दिल्ली-6 द्वारा प्रकाशित)

Teaching in the Yukon Superintendent of Education, Box 2703, Whitehorse, Yukon Territory.

Yukon Territory Superintendent of Education, Box 2703, Whitehorse, Yukon Territory.

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U. P.

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विशेष विवेचनीय एवं विवादमूलक निबंधों पर आपकी पत्र-प्रतिक्रियाओं का पत्राक्ष में सर्वत्र स्वागत है

PATRĀKSH
(Readers' Views)

Programmed Learning Issue

Congratulations for bringing out a real nice special issue on programmed Instruction. The cover design is extremely attractive. Heartiest congratulations.

—O. S. Dewal
Vidya Bhawan Teachers College,
Udaipur (Rajasthan)

'अभिक्रमित अध्ययन' अंक

'नया शिक्षक' के नवीन स्वरूप, साज-सज्जा, साइज आदि के लिए आपके प्रयास एवं परिश्रम से जो परिवर्तन किये गये हैं, वास्तव में सराहनीय हैं, मेरी बधाई स्वीकार करें। पाठकों के सुझावों पर भी आप ध्यान देते हैं, 'पत्राक्ष' स्तम्भ इसका प्रमाण है।

"प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग" विशेषांक बहुत अच्छा बन पड़ा। यह नया विषय है, शिक्षण की नवीनतम एवं प्रयोगशालाओं में परीक्षित एवं परिवर्धित पद्धति है। इस विशेषांक में केवल 'प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग" विषय पर ही सब लेख, निबन्ध आदि होने तो यह विशेषांक बहुत ही श्रेष्ठ बन पाता। 'व्यावहारिक' पक्ष की अनुपस्थिति खटकती है। यदि इसी विशेषांक में कुछ विषयों जैसे हिन्दी, अंग्रेजी, सामाजिक ज्ञान, सामान्य विज्ञान, गणित आदि में किसी भी कक्षा सम्बन्धी उदाहरण के तौर पर 'प्रोग्राम्स', 'फ्रेम्स' आदि भी प्रकाशित कर दिये जाते तो पाठकों एवं शिक्षकों के लिए बहुत ही सरल, स्पष्ट एवं सुरुचिपूर्ण सामग्री सिद्ध होती।

राज्य शिक्षा विभाग, हो सकता है आर्थिक विषमताओं एवं बजट की कमी के कारण, 'प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग' कार्यक्रम विभिन्न विषयों एवं कक्षाओं में लागू करने में असमर्थ हो, क्योंकि यह एक साहसिक कदम होने के साथ-साथ खर्चीला भी होगा क्योंकि इसके पाठ्यक्रम एवं पाठ्यपुस्तकों को परिवर्तित करनी ही पड़ेगी, साथ में नये प्रोग्राम्स एवं फ्रेम्स का भी निर्माण करना होगा जिसमें श्रम, समय एवं धन के साथ-साथ योग्य एवं निष्ठावान व्यक्तियों की भी आवश्यकता है।

लेकिन इस कार्यक्रम को प्रारम्भ किया

संस्थान, उदयपुर के तत्त्वावधान में प्रकाशित 'एस. टी. सी. पत्राचार पाठ्यक्रम' एवं राज- स्थान माध्यमिक शिक्षा बोर्ड, अजमेर के तत्त्वावधान में प्रकाशित 'पत्राचार पाठ्यक्रम' में तो सफलतापूर्वक लागू किया ही जा सकता है। वैसे भी इन सामग्रियों को पाठ लिखवाने, उनको सुधारने एवं मुद्रित करवाने पर काफी व्यय तो करना ही पड़ता है। यदि 'प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग' में प्रशिक्षित, अनुभवी तथा योग्य विशेषज्ञों एवं विद्वानों द्वारा पत्राचार पाठ्यक्रम के पाठ लिखवाये जाय तो सेवारत शिक्षक प्रशिक्षणार्थियों एवं अन्य प्रशिक्षणार्थियों के लिए उक्त सामग्री बहुत ही लाभदायक, सुगम, सुन्दर एवं स्पष्ट सिद्ध होगी। शिक्षा विभाग को इन सामग्रियों के माध्यम से इस कार्यक्रम को एक 'परियोजना' के रूप में प्रारम्भ करने की आवश्यकता है। —निसार बेग मिर्जा

शिक्षक अभिनवन प्रशिक्षण केन्द्र
वेदला (उदयपुर, राज०)

"नया शिक्षक" का अप्रैल-जून ७० का अंक हस्तगत हुआ। मैं नया शिक्षक का नियमित पाठक हूँ और प्रत्येक अंक की प्रतीक्षा में बेचैन रहता हूँ। "नया शिक्षक" का प्रत्येक अंक शिक्षाजगत् के लिये महत्त्व-पूर्ण सामग्रियों से परिपूर्ण होता है। प्रस्तुत अंक भी "अभिक्रमित अध्ययन" जैसी विशेष सामग्री से सम्पन्न है।

अभिक्रमित अध्ययन या "प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग" आजकल शिक्षाजगत् में चर्चा एवं प्रयोग का विषय बना हुआ है। इस विषय पर सर्वश्री ओंकारसिंह देवल तथा भागीरथ सिंह शेखावत के लेख क्रमश: "क्रमसिद्ध अध्ययन", "कक्षाध्यापन में प्रोग्राम्ड लर्निंग की उपादेयता", "जांच के आधार पर प्रोग्राम परिमार्जन" तथा इसी प्रकार आर. सी. मेहता का "ए न्यू टीचिंग फॉर क्लास रूम आर आउट ऑफ स्कूल टीचिंग", तथा अन्य लेख विषय के सन्दर्भ में अत्यन्त महत्त्वपूर्ण एवं उपयोगी है। श्री देवल एवं शेखावतजी ने अभिक्रमित अध्ययन के अर्थ को स्पष्ट कर उसकी विशेषताएं, आवश्यकताएं तथा भारत में अभिक्रमित अध्ययन के भविष्य के विषय में व्यावहारिक सरल ढंग से प्रस्तुत की, वह मेरे आकर्षण का कारण रही है। कृपया लेख-कद्वय को मेरी ओर से हार्दिक बधाई प्रेषित करने का कष्ट करें। —मोहम्मद हुसैन आबिद

सीनियर विद्यालय
प्रतापगढ़ (उदयपुर)

नया शिक्षक का अप्रैल-जून ७० का अंक देखने पर एक निखार सामने आया। सम्पूर्ण अंक 'अभिक्रमित अध्ययन' को समर्पित किया गया है। अभिक्रमित अध्ययन पर श्री भागीरथसिंह शेखावत का अच्छा लेख है। इसके अन्य पक्षों को स्पर्श करते हुये अन्य लेख भी हैं, परन्तु हैं सब सिद्धान्त-वादी। अच्छा रहता, एक लेख अभिक्रमित अध्ययन के अन्तर्गत पढ़ाये जाने वाले नमूने के पाठ के रूप में होता।

श्री रमणलाल जैन का लेख बहुत पसंद आया। विशेष रूप से ये पंक्तियां "नयी पीढ़ी के कोमल मस्तिष्क में यह परिवर्तन, स्थापित की जानी चाहिए कि धर्मनिरपेक्षता की विचारधारा आदर्शवाद पर नहीं, यथार्थ पर आधारित है—युग घोष एकीकरण का आह्वान कर रहा है। यदि संगठित धर्म के चंगुल से मुक्त मानवतावादी, वैज्ञानिक, युक्ति-मूलक सामाजिक जीवन की दिशा में हम आगे बढ़ सकें तो वर्तमान दूरियां, जो एक सीमा तक कृत्रिम और स्वनिर्मित हैं और एक सीमा तक इतिहास तथा द्विराष्ट्र सिद्धान्त की भी विरासत हैं, सरलतापूर्वक पाटी जा सकती हैं।"

श्री उमरावसिंहजी चौधरी का लेख 'छात्रों में पलायनशीलता' पढ़ने पर अपनी अनुभूत बात लिखने की जंची। छात्रों के पलायन के लिए विद्यालय का वातावरण और उसकी प्रशासनिक व्यवस्था सर्वाधिक

उत्तरदायी होती है। मेरे यहां ४५० छात्र हैं। पिछले दो माह में किसी भी दिन २% से अधिक छात्र अनुपस्थित नहीं रहे। व्यवस्था के बारे में सत्र के अन्त में लिखूंगा। अभी अनुभव चल रहा है कि इस समस्या का समाधान क्या है?

—श्रीराम शर्मा
राजकीय उच्च प्राथमिक विद्यालय,
सावरियावास (सीकर)

शिक्षा कार्यों में राज्यों को स्वतंत्रता

नया शिक्षक के अंक (जनवरी-मार्च) में श्री सुरेन्द्रनाथ पंडा ने अपने लेख "शिक्षा में केन्द्र एवं राज्य सम्बन्ध" द्वारा शिक्षा सम्बन्धी नीति-निर्धारण, आयोजन एवं प्राथमिकता या कार्यक्रम के सम्बन्ध में राज्यों को अधिक अधिकार एवं स्वतन्त्रता देने का भाव व्यक्त किया है। यह सत्य है कि संयुक्त उत्तरदायित्व से परस्पर दोषारोपण द्वारा असफलता छिपाने का अवसर अवश्य मिल जाता है। किन्तु केन्द्र के उचित एवं पथ-प्रदर्शनात्मक नियन्त्रण एवं निर्देशन के अभाव में राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति का परिपालन असम्भव हो जावेगा। कतिपय राज्यों के समान अधिकांश राज्यों के प्रशासन मत-दाताओं में लोकप्रियता प्राप्त करने के लिये केन्द्र या अन्य राज्य की मान्यता का विरोध कर जन सामान्य की अवांछित पृथकतावादी भावना को उभारने का प्रयास करने लगेंगे। आज एक राज्य की ही प्राथमिक, माध्यमिक एवं उच्च शिक्षा में अध्यापन, मूल्यांकन, निर्देशन एवं प्रशासन में भिन्नता है तो फिर सभी अधिकार दे दिये जाने पर राज्य की शिक्षा नीति भी संकीर्ण क्षेत्रवाद का अंग बनकर रह जायेगी। अतः इस परिस्थिति से बचने के लिये राष्ट्रहित की शिक्षा नीति एवं उसमें उचित समन्वय बनाने के लिये राज्य केन्द्र के निर्देश में कार्य करें, यही उचित होगा।

—रामसहाय विजयवर्गीय
रा० उच्च० मा० विद्यालय,
केकड़ी (अजमेर)

'शिक्षक-प्रशिक्षण'

'नया शिक्षक' का १२ (४) अंक पढ़ा। अंक संग्रहणीय है। इस बार मेरा मुख्य आकर्षण रहा श्री श्रीराम शर्मा लिखित 'शिक्षक-प्रशिक्षण'। विचार श्लाघनीय हैं। लेखक ने जो आदर्श योजना बनाकर दी है वह यदि कार्यान्वित हो तो शिक्षाजगत् के लिये बहुत ही हितकर होगी।

परन्तु लेखक महोदय कल्पना की नौका में बैठकर व्यवहार की दुनियां से कोसों दूर चले गये हैं। कक्षा ६ में जो शिक्षा विषय लेने का प्रस्ताव रखा है, स्पष्ट नहीं है क्योंकि अध्यापक तो हर विषय का होता है। एक अभियन्ता भी तो अध्यापक हो सकता है। अत लेखक की दृष्टि में तीन प्रश्न-पत्रों के स्थान पर चार प्रश्न-पत्र ऐच्छिक होने चाहिये, जैसे विज्ञान के अध्यापक के लिये तीन विज्ञान के प्रश्न-पत्र और एक शिक्षा का। क्या इसके लिये रीजनल कालेज, अजमेर द्वारा संचालित विज्ञान शिक्षक उपाधि कार्यक्रम जैसी योजना पर्याप्त नहीं? शर्माजी ने जो शिक्षा संकाय के लिये सुझाव दिया है सो तो जहां तक मैं जानता हूँ अधिकांश विश्वविद्यालयों में अलग होता है। हां, शिक्षा विश्वविद्यालय अवश्य अलग से नहीं होता। मेरी दृष्टि में इसके लिये शिक्षा शोध संस्थानों का विकास ही पर्याप्त एवं व्यावहारिक है। यदि शिक्षा का अलग विश्वविद्यालय होगा तो फिर प्रत्येक विषय के अलग-अलग विश्वविद्यालय होंगे जो आगे चलकर एक तनाव के बराबर मुद्दा रखेंगे।

—मेवाराम कसारा
राज० उच्च प्राथमिक विद्यालय,
धीरपुर (सीकर)

कविता और कविता शिक्षण

नया शिक्षक के जनवरी-मार्च ७० के अंक में सावित्री शर्मा का लेख – "कविता और कविता शिक्षण" पढ़ा। [illegible] ने जहाँ काव्य के [illegible] के [illegible]

वार्षिक चन्दा

नया शिक्षक ८-०० (शिक्षकों से २-००)
शिविरा पत्रिका ८-०० (शिक्षकों से ३-००)

आवश्यकता है

उत्तम शिक्षण की
उच्चकोटि के शिक्षण बिना देश का
द्रुत विकास कैसे सम्भव हो सकता है ?

आवश्यकता है

नूतन लेखन की
परम्परा, प्रयोग, अभ्यास व अनुभव की रोशनी में
विचारशील शिक्षकों द्वारा शिक्षा सम्बन्धी विषयों पर निरंतर
मौलिक लेखन बिना हमारी
व्यावसायिक उत्कृष्टता कैसे सम्भव हो सकती है ?

आवश्यकता है

सेवारत अनवरत स्वयं शिक्षण- प्रशिक्षण की
जो नवीनतम अच्छा शिक्षा-साहित्य (जिसमें शैक्षिक पत्र-पत्रिकाएं
भी शामिल हैं) रुचिपूर्वक पढ़ने की आदत डाले
बगैर बिल्कुल सम्भव नहीं है ।

क्या आप अच्छे शिक्षक, अच्छे लेखक, अच्छे पाठक नहीं बनेंगे ?
आप नया शिक्षक व शिविरा पत्रिका के लेखक, पाठक व ग्राहक बनने का संकल्प लीजियेगा ?
...ते, पूरे स्टाफ को लिखवाइये ।
...ो देखते हुए शुल्क कुछ भी नहीं है ।

याद रखिये : जो रोज पढ़ता है वही रोज पढ़ाने का अधिकारी है